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ABSTRACT

Thirteen articles previously published in "Elementary English" are reprinted in this monograph. The articles focus on a wide range of topics but are drawn together by their emphasis on the teaching of reading. The first group of articles concerns the organization and evaluation of reading instruction, the next group discusses the place of literature in reading programs, the third group relates language to reading, and the final article is an annotated bibliography on critical reading. (This document previously announced as ED 045 303.) (MS)

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Aspects of Reading

Eldonna L. Evertts
Editor

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Foreword

Reading is to the mind what exercise is to the body.—Joseph Addison, *The Tatler*

Children come to school having learned to manipulate language. And as they relate their experiences or their emotional responses to what they have seen or know in their worlds, language seems to come easily. At such times there appears to be no limit to the flow of words or the complicated grammatical structures children can manipulate.

Not so with reading. Reading all too often is delayed; it is resisted by children. Perhaps this is because reading is many-sided, involving many aspects—sociological, psychological, physical, emotional. It comprises the act of decoding and the use of cognitive processes. Yet, underlying and overlying these factors, the whole idea of reading is dominated by language—the language of the person engaging in the act of reading and the language used by the author.

Recent scholarship has focused on the interrelationship of language to reading; however, such concern is not only recent. During the early 1940's, B. R. Buckingham stressed the common elements of each:

> Holding as I do that most children who are deficient in reading are in reality deficient in language ability, I suggest two things: first, that reading and language be taught with far greater recognition of their common elements . . . and, secondly, that when children are found to be deficient in reading, we go far enough back into fundamental causes to build them up in basic abilities.[1]

These articles on the content of a reading program and on the power of phonics and linguistics to explain the process of decoding should be of interest to the classroom teacher, the special teacher of reading, supervisors, and administrators. The person not having a sophisticated knowledge of phonics or linguistics will find practical and specific helps in this collection.

The first two articles, by Albert J. Harris and Russell G. Stauffer, isolate basic factors and convictions for planning instructional programs in reading. In the first article are key questions to guide the evaluation of reading programs. A basic tenet of the second article is that reading is akin to thinking.

Authors in the second group of articles discuss the place of literature in reading programs. Particular emphasis is given to Mother Goose, folk tales, and critical reading.

The next collection of articles relates language and its various components to the process of reading. In "My Son, the Linguist and Reader," Sam Sebesta

[1]B. R. Buckingham, "Language and Reading: A Unified Program," *The Elementary English Review*, 12 (March 1940), 116.

has an imaginative approach in summarizing the importance of linguistics in reading. He shows that much more than a study of language is needed. He stresses the importance of children's literature in reading, as well as an understanding of the language itself. John Carroll emphasizes a need to build into reading programs provision for rich, natural uses of language. According to Carroll, certain features of native language learning can be incorporated in the procedures for teaching reading by the comparison of reading instruction with natural language learning. Furthermore, he suggests that, if one looks at the way the child learns his native language, he will see implications for reading instruction. Carl Lefevre believes that reading is a language-related process and that "the sentence is a basic meaning-bearing unit in reading, not the word." Joan Baratz defines the essential difference between teaching reading to ghetto children and teaching it to others. She sees language interference as one of the chief concerns to be considered when dealing with the literacy problems of Negro ghetto youth.

Robert Emans, who gives a historical view of phonics and phonics instruction, begins his discussion with methods formulated in the sixteenth century. His concluding comment is indeed a truism: that every time phonics disappears from the reading program, it is reintroduced but in a somewhat different form. A distinction between phonics and phonetics is carefully drawn by Harold B. Allen, who also gives the historical dimensions associated with these two words. His article serves to clarify the distinctions which should be made in using the two terms, distinctions not always apparent in discussions of reading.

The bibliography on critical reading by Martha L. King and Bernice Ellinger Cullinan is an excellent aid for the teacher who needs further knowledge on this aspect of reading, which is important in the early grades but particularly essential in the intermediate and middle grades.

Throughout the monograph the authors stress the importance of the use of natural language in helping boys and girls improve their ability to read. It is the hope of the editor that this miscellany will serve in some way to give the teacher, the supervisor, the administrator, and the teacher-in-training a new perspective on reading, or even a renewed confidence in what they believe about reading.

Eldonna L. Everttts

Albert J. Harris

Key Factors in a Successful Reading Program

For many years, study skills experts have been advising that it is desirable to turn headings into questions and then to focus on the facts and ideas that provide answers to the questions. I am going to follow this advice: in talking about key factors in a successful reading program, I will really consider key questions which can guide us in evaluating a reading program and deciding whether or not everything is being done that can make a reading program effective. How many key questions there are is somewhat arbitrary, but I shall attempt to consider ten.

1. *Are we giving every child a successful start in reading?*

The concept of reading readiness has had its ups and downs. Originally it was a highly desirable corrective for a situation in which 20 to 40 percent of young children, plunged abruptly into the beginning of reading instruction, failed to make enough progress to be promoted. In providing for a more gradual and sometimes delayed start on formal reading instruction, some school systems went to the opposite extreme of delaying children who were ready along with those who needed a readiness period and program. Recent evidence indicates that a readiness program may be a sheer waste of time for children who are mature when they enter the first grade. On the other hand, the child who shows specific weakness in certain areas of readiness is likely to benefit when readiness instruction is designed specifically to overcome these weaknesses. For the most part, readiness weaknesses fall in four main areas: general language patterns, vocabulary and concepts, visual perception, and auditory perception. An effective readiness program should make use of readiness tests that can locate areas of weakness and should provide specific learning sequences in each area in which a weakness is found.

Another factor in a successful start is the increasingly recognized fact that children vary in the modes of learning that are most natural for them. For some children a predominantly visual approach succeeds well. For a minority, a method in which auditory perception and phonics are stressed may be highly desirable. A still smaller minority have difficulty with both visual and auditory avenues to learning, and for them a reliance on tracing and writing procedures may allow successful learning to go forward.

Still another important factor in a successful start is the pace of instruction. A program which is too slow for many children may cause boredom and dis-

Albert J. Harris is a professor emeritus of the City University of New York.

interest. One which is too fast leaves many members of the group floundering and frustrated. An alert awareness of the way in which the children are reacting to the instruction, day by day, helps an effective first grade teacher to keep the pace of the program in line with the learning abilities of the children.

2. *How well are we helping children to become independent in word recognition?*

The question of whether or not to teach phonics is a long-dead issue that continues to be dug up from time to time by crusaders ignorant of what is going on in our schools. There is a legitimate difference of opinion in this area, but it is not concerned with whether or not to teach phonics. Everyone agrees that children need to be taught the techniques for independence in word recognition and to become quick and accurate in word recognition.

The differences of opinion are concerned with a number of specific questions. Should reading activity be meaningful from the beginning, or is it efficient to start with nonsense syllables or words in lists? What is the best sequence in which to introduce phonic elements? Is it better to teach phonetically irregular words from the beginning, or is it best to start only with regular words and introduce the exceptions much later? Is it advisable to start with an artificial alphabet in which each symbol represents a unique sound and transfer to the regular alphabet later, or is it better to work with the regular alphabet from the beginning? How valuable is it to use a different color for each sound, particularly vowel sounds? On these and other related questions research has not yet provided definite answers.

For the three years (1964-67) I was involved in a study of reading methodology in the first, second, and third grades.[1] One of the things that turned up is that the number of minutes per day spent in actual reading instruction is a crucially important factor in the outcomes. Teachers who spend major portions of their time on direct reading instruction tended, in general, to get better results than teachers who spend the major part of their language arts time on what may be described as supportive activities. Within each of the four teaching methods we compared there are certain activities that seem to have high pay-off value and others that seem to be noncontributory.

In most published research on beginning reading, the experimenters have told the teachers how much time to spend on reading instruction and have assumed that this is what took place. We had our teachers keep daily time records on a systematic schedule. We found that, despite instructions, there were wide variations within each method both in the total amount of time spent per day and in the time spent on specific phases of reading and the language arts. I have therefore come to the conclusion that much of our available research on first grade reading is inconclusive because we do not have the facts to separate the effects of teaching methods from those of instructional time.

Independence in word recognition is not merely a learning of basic phonics. It includes a variety of techniques, including efficient forming of inferences

[1] A. J. Harris, C. Morrison, Blanche L. Serwer, and L. Gold, *A Continuation of the CRAFT Project: Comparing Reading Approaches with Disadvantaged Urban Negro Children in the Primary Grades*, Final Report, Project 5-0570-2-12-1 (New York: Selected Academic Readings, 1968). See also summaries in *The Reading Teacher*, May 1966, May 1967, and January 1969.

from context clues, the use of principles of structural analysis of words into roots, prefixes, and suffixes, and a flexible approach that moves from one alternative to another until the word is successfully solved. In the middle grades we need to add effective dictionary skills, including speed in locating the word in the dictionary and guided practice in the proper use of the key to pronunciation.

3. *Are we stimulating vocabulary growth sufficiently?*

The high correlation that is nearly always found between meaningful vocabulary and reading comprehension indicates that vocabulary development must be one of our most important areas of concern. Children understand the meaning of a word only when they have had enough experience out of which to develop an appropriate concept for the word. In the past few years we have become much more vividly aware of the limitations in background of experience, in concept development, and in meaningful vocabulary that handicap thousands of children in their progress in school. Vocabulary deficiencies are especially significant among children who come to school with educational and cultural disadvantages. It has been shown that many disadvantaged children have less than half of the meaningful vocabulary possessed by typical middle-class children.

To stimulate vocabulary growth, a number of different kinds of efforts are necessary. One of these is to provide real experiences in which new words and their meanings are absorbed easily and quickly. When real experience cannot be brought into the classroom, or the pupils cannot be taken out of the classroom to the experience, substitute or vicarious experience can frequently be provided.

Each area of the curriculum has certain basic concepts whose meanings need to be understood accurately and fully. Teachers need to take time to provide abundant illustrations of these concepts and to check and recheck the children's understandings of them.

A third avenue to vocabulary development is through the medium of wide independent reading. Once one gets beyond the vocabulary of the primary grade basal readers, any new word is likely to come up so seldom in a particular teaching sequence that it takes the reading of millions of running words in order to find most of the words in the vocabulary of an educated and intelligent adult. Providing the materials, time, and encouragement for independent reading is one way in which the school can build vocabulary.

A fourth aspect of vocabulary growth is teaching the efficient use of the dictionary. Most of us learned to use dictionaries by trial and error and have never become really skillful at it. Today we have better dictionaries than ever before, and they start at first grade level. Guided practice in the correct use of dictionaries should be built into our comprehensive reading program.

A final important factor in vocabulary development is the stimulation of an interest in words and their meanings. Here, contests and games of various kinds can be harnessed to vocabulary learning to good effect. Children can become sensitized, through competitive games, to the meanings of new words they come across and to the varied meanings which most of our common words can carry.

4. *Are we making effective use of audio-visual aids for reading instruction?*

For years, there has been a dispute among reading specialists over the value

of what have generally been described as "reading machines." These are devices for projecting words or phrases quickly or for controlling the rate at which a particular reading selection is presented. Some of them have been on the market for years and have sold thousands of units. In general, however, research in the upper grades and secondary school has failed to show any significant advantage for a machine over a non-machine instructional procedure. What advantages the machine may have seem to lie more in the area of novelty and motivation than in promoting learning efficiency.

During the three years of the CRAFT Project my staff explored the use of a variety of audio-visual procedures in beginning reading. Our teachers tried overhead projectors, tape recorders, film-strip projectors, listening corners, and show and tell devices combining a record with a film-strip; they took cameras along on field trips in order to record what was seen for later illustration and discussion. Our results indicate that for the teachers who had good training in how to utilize this kind of equipment, large amounts of time spent with such procedures were beneficial to reading skills. However, for teachers who had not been carefully trained in audio-visual teaching, the more time spent with audio-visual procedures, the worse the reading test results.

This suggests a word of caution to those districts that have been spending money on a wide variety of audio-visual equipment and supplies. Supervision and training in the use of audio-visual procedures is essential if this equipment is to repay its cost, and, if such training is not provided, a profusion of such equipment may actually interfere with the instructional program.

5. *Are we meeting the problem of individual differences effectively?*

In order to provide effectively for individual differences in learning to read, the first essential is an adequate diagnostic program. Such a program provides the teacher with information on such essentials as the correct level of difficulty for the materials the child should be reading, the specific skills he has mastered, and the specific skills in which he needs further help. When there are severe or persistent problems, diagnosis needs to go beyond this to explore the possible handicaps that may be preventing the child from making progress.

Another minimum essential for effective individualization is a collection of materials that can provide for the wide variety of levels of competence to be found in almost any reading class. The past few years have seen a tremendous increase in the production of materials that are adaptable to individual progress and individual rates of learning. As such materials become more widely known, and as their content is improved, it will become increasingly possible to allow each child to proceed at his own best rate of speed.

6. *Are we providing a rich and varied reading diet?*

A child who ate nothing but rich, sweet desserts would soon become a medical case of malnutrition. Similarly, a one-sided reading diet may produce unbalanced reading skills, interest, and attitudes. Children need a balanced reading diet as much as they require balanced food intake.

One form of reading malnutrition is based upon the assumption that reading can be learned entirely from basal readers. It is true that something like 95 percent of the classrooms in this country

employ basal readers as the core of instruction in reading. But unless there is considerable reading diet beyond the contents of the basal program, the children must be regarded as being on a bare subsistence level so far as reading nutrition is concerned. Wide reading beyond the confines of any one set of books is necessary if we are to develop the reading skills needed for the future.

When there are classroom libraries, school libraries, and well-stocked children's rooms in nearby public libraries, a balanced, varied, and nutritious reading diet becomes possible. I have at times expressed the opinion that the best way to evaluate a library is in terms of the number of books reported as lost or damaged. The higher this number, the more effective the library in promoting reading among children. When I visit a library and see shelves full of neat and shining books, my first guess is that this is a room that makes it hard for children to get at the collection.

The promotion of independent reading requires cooperation between teacher and parent. The hours devoted to television, which have averaged nearly three hours a day for elementary children over the past twenty years, absorb much of the quiet indoor time that used to be available mainly for recreational reading. Unless parents cooperate by limiting TV viewing time and by encouraging and fostering reading as a leisure time activity, the efforts of the school in this direction are likely to fall short of their desired goals.

7. *Are we giving sufficient training in the careful analysis of difficult material?*

In the early grades we quite often hear the complaint that the language of the children is richer and more varied than that employed in their reading materials. By the time children reach the intermediate grades, the complaint more frequently is that the language of the book is far more complex and difficult than the language to which the child is accustomed. This is far more true for children from educationally limited backgrounds than it is for children whose parents are college graduates. For all children, however, increasing complexity of writing style becomes a major problem to be surmounted as children move into the content and reference books of the middle grades and secondary school.

Recently there has been renewed attention to the desirability of providing guided practice in functional sentence analysis. Without necessarily using the terminology of formal grammar, it is possible to provide a scheme for checking understanding of the basic meaning of a sentence. Who or what did something? What happened? To whom or to what? How? When? Where? Why? The systematic application of these questions makes it possible for a child to locate the key ideas within a sentence and to unravel the meaning of long and difficult sentences.

In a fifth grade selection about the first Continental Congress I found this sentence: "They declared that they did not ask for freedom from England but only that they be given certain rights which all Englishmen should enjoy."

A teacher who had the misfortune of having to teach with such a poorly written textbook could take off some of the curse by asking some questions and teaching children how to find the answers. For example, what is the antecedent of "they?" How many things did they declare? What does "they be given" mean? What does it mean to *enjoy* a right?

Quite a few years ago a whole book was written on the subject of how to read a page.[2] Without going into that much detail, it seems evident that we can make far more of an effort than we have done in the past to help children learn to cope with the complexities of scholarly writing. In doing so, we need to use subject matter taken from the content subjects and to provide for the systematic development of a wide range of study skills. These range from simple skills like learning alphabetical order and how to use an index to the very complex ones of learning how to outline and to write summaries of difficult and challenging selections.

8. *Are we making it fun to read?*

Survey after survey has revealed disappointing facts about the reading habits of adults.[3] Disappointment applies not only to the adult population in general but also to those who are college graduates. It even extends to the reading habits of teachers. Even among those who do read regularly and frequently, the reading diet is all too often confined exclusively to light fiction. Magazine readers greatly outnumber book readers, and book readers who regularly read thought-provoking books or works of genuine literary excellence form a regrettably small minority.

If a person becomes a reading addict, his love of reading causes him to find the time to read regardless of other activities. Our most avid readers do go to movies, do have social lives, and do watch television. They do have friends and do participate in outdoor sports and activities. But somehow or other they always find time for reading. Our problem is to learn how to make such an addiction to reading more widespread.

It is clearly evident that adult leadership is very important in the development of the habit of reading for pleasure. The model provided by the parents is very influential. In addition, contagious enthusiasm for reading displayed by teachers can be extremely effective in promoting independent reading. A good reading teacher is a good book salesman.

9. *Are we evaluating all the important aspects of growth in reading?*

I referred earlier to the importance of testing procedures that provide the classroom teacher with diagnostic information necessary to make correct decisions in deciding the level of difficulty at which individual children are ready to read and to locate specific skills in which they need additional help. Standardized tests of reading ability are especially valuable for making comparisons among pupil populations and for tracing growth in research studies. Because they show how a child compares with other children rather than exactly what he can do with specific kinds of reading materials, standardized tests are somewhat less useful for instructional guidance than has often been assumed. To find out if a child is ready for a particular book, or in other words whether the book fits the child, it is necessary to try the book on for size. If the book is too difficult, the child experiences frustration and failure and learns little or nothing useful from his exposure to it. If the book is too easy and too limited, the child experiences boredom and discomfort and becomes

[2] I. A. Richards, *How to Read a Page* (New York: W. W. Norton & Company, Inc., 1942).

[3] Naomi C. Chase, "Lifetime Reading Habits," in *Development of Lifetime Reading Habits*, edited by Dorothy M. Dietrich and Virginia H. Mathews; Joint Committee on Reading Development of the American Book Publishers Council and the International Reading Association (Newark, Del.: IRA, 1968), pp. 43-48.

less interested in reading than he was before. Taking the time to try the book on for size is an important feature of an effective reading program. The teacher who neglects to do this assigns many children to the wrong materials and then is disappointed by the way in which they respond.

We need wider use of tests that can pinpoint specific weaknesses in word recognition, comprehension, vocabulary, and study skills. Developing better group tests in these areas is a task for the future.

Besides the areas of reading which can today be measured with objectivity, there are some areas that are more subjective and harder to evaluate. We need to emphasize the importance of reading interests and attitudes. We need to encourage teachers to judge the taste and discrimination that children display in their reactions to different kinds of reading materials. We need to emphasize the importance of varying the rate of reading in accordance with the requirements of the material and the purpose for reading. And finally, we need to put far greater emphasis upon sensitivity to the child's ability to read with critical judgment.

10. *Are we making adequate provisions for the retarded reader?*

Essentially, we have two kinds of retarded readers. The larger group consists of children who are already reading at an average or even slightly above average level, but who are so bright that their reading skills should be far higher than their present competence. These children are properly called underachievers in reading. They are frequently overlooked because they are not failing, but the gap that they show between potential reading ability and attained reading ability is sometimes distressingly large. Locating such pupils through a comparison of intelligence and reading scores is one of the values of a testing program.

The children whose reading skills are inadequate in terms of the normal expectation for their age and grade placement divide broadly into three groups. The largest of these groups is that of children who are generally slow in their intellectual development and whose reading is on a par with, and sometimes even a little above, their level of competence in other areas of intellectual functioning. Such pupils need a reading program which is adapted to their limited abilities, rather than a corrective or remedial program.

The next largest group consists of those children who are moderately below average for their grade. These children can usually be taught successfully in the classroom when the teacher groups them appropriately and provides learning materials and activities appropriate to their level.

The third group of retarded readers includes those with genuine and severe disabilities in reading. These children need more intensive individualized study and diagnosis and usually do not begin to respond well to instruction until they receive help in small groups or on a completely individualized basis. Sometimes even that is ineffectual, and a careful, comprehensive, clinical diagnosis by representatives of a variety of professions may be necessary. Such facilities for clinical study may be found in a special reading clinic connected with a college, university, or large school system, or in a child guidance clinic under public or private auspices. The recognition that a particular child needs intensive diagnostic study is the first step toward providing for his needs. Those who have worked with such disabled

readers are vividly aware that this is a vitally important activity, and one that is richly rewarding when it succeeds. I recently glowed with pride when I learned that one of my former disability cases is now an outstanding sculptor; some of you may have had similar success stories. Let us hope that the bright, disabled reader who goes unrecognized and is considered to be mentally retarded is rapidly becoming a thing of the past.

In summary, asking the right questions helps us to set appropriate goals for the reading program, and to develop a well-rounded program which does not concentrate on a few desirable outcomes to the neglect of others. A successful reading program should pay attention to at least ten areas of concern: beginning reading, independence in word recognition, vocabulary development, use of audio-visual aids, provisions for individual differences, richness and variety of materials, training in study-type reading, fostering of interest in reading, evaluating all important areas of reading, and providing for retarded readers.

[JANUARY 1969]

Russell G. Stauffer

Certain Convictions about Reading Instruction

The noblest freedom we can give our children is freedom from fear. To do this we must teach them to stand and face fear boldly, to look at it, analyze it, and act on it. The noblest skill we can give a reader is the freedom to examine his own thinking, to raise his own questions, to seek answers diligently and boldly, to analyze and act. The only fear a scholar should have is the tyranny of his own decisions. He must be thorough and diligent in seeking the facts, judicious in weighing them, and fearful only that he must face the consequences of his own decisions.

Democracy and ignorance do not go together (11). A citizen must be able to read and to think for himself about what he reads. He must read widely and frequently. He must judge the value of what he reads against his own experience and the statements of others. His mind rather than his memory must be trained so that for him learning to read and make educated decisions will be a continuing process.

This presentation advances certain convictions about reading and reading instruction. A basic tenet viewing reading as a form of thinking is dealt with again and again even at the risk of redundancy.

First is the conviction that the reading process is closely akin to the thinking process. Regulating reading by questions to be answered sets up a perplexity which demands a solution. This need to resolve a perplexity steadies and guides the reader-thinker and controls the rate and type of reading undertaken. As Piaget would say it, as long as a state of disequilibrium exists, the child has a basic need for commerce with a question until an answer has been found and mastery acquired. This is a native propensity of the mind and is fundamental to all learning (16).

Self-declared purposes are of special significance. They direct and motivate one's reading and are potent to the degree they reflect the reader's motives, attitudes, experiences, and knowledge. Possession of the ability to declare purposes makes the differences between an able reader—alert, flexible, and curious—and an intellectual bungler.

Freedom to declare purposes leads to an intellectual involvement having tremendous motivating potential (10). Students who help to create a questioning climate strive also to maintain it until assimilation is complete and accommodation is total, and they do so with an astonishing degree of integrity. Once pupils realize that it is the boldness of their thinking that is being sought, they realize that reading is an invigorating process of active search and inquiry.

A student must parallel this knowledge with the realization that if he accepts ques-

Russell G. Stauffer is director of the Reading Study Center and H. Rodney Sharp Professor of Education at the University of Delaware.

tions raised by others to guide his reading and thinking, he should do so only after careful examination of the premises of the questions. He must understand that if he accepts the premises of others he may also be bound to accept their conclusions.

Second is the belief that group reading instruction is as essential as individualized reading instruction. It is in the dynamics of a group situation that the thinking-reading skills can be honed and polished. In the initial years of reading instruction, basic readers can supply the materials needed for directed reading-thinking group activities. If basic-reader controls of vocabulary give way in time to control of concepts, memoriter processes to cognitive processes, so-called companion readers to the library, and skill activities in boxes to functional reading-inquiring activities—then basic readers can be quite useful.

Individualized reading instruction, with its focus on self-responsibility, self-knowledge, and sharing, requires at least equal time with group instruction. Any basic reader program represents but a poor abridgment of a library and should not at any time be thought of as "the reading program." At most, perhaps, a basic reading series might be thought of as a launching pad from which to get each pupil into the individualized reading orbit.

Third is the belief that reading is one facet of language and one means of communication and should from the very beginning of reading instruction be taught as such through a language-experience approach. Children learn at an early age the basic structures of their language, so that their oral language usage stands in sharp contrast to the language of pre-primers and primers, whether of the "Run, Dick, Run" or "Nat is a fat cat" variety (15). This is why children should see and understand that reading is no more than talk written down.

All children want to read and write (3). The creative use of the language-experience approach enables children to record, first by dictation and then by creative writing, what they think or feel is important and thus to communicate with others. This approach provides a ready way to acquire a sight vocabulary, to learn word attack skills by making immediate use of the pupil's own sounds (spoken words), to read materials written by others (their peers), and then to enjoy the reading of trade books and periodicals.

Recent evidence provides much support for this point of view. Studies at the University of Delaware (14), University of Pittsburgh (4), and Oakland County (Michigan) Public Schools (6) were especially suggestive, and the creative writing achievements of young children have been most astounding (13). A detailed analysis of creative writing obtained in both an experimental population and a control population provides specific evidence of superiority for the language-experience (experimental) population (9).

Fourth is the belief that a school library is more essential to sound reading instruction than any basic reader series can ever be. Many centuries ago Archimedes told us: "Give me a lever long enough and a fulcrum strong enough and I can move the world." The wisdom of this advice can be adapted to this context and provide the leverage that can make a real difference: "Give me a school with a library big enough and support strong enough and education can realize its full potential." President Kennedy in his official statement released April 19, 1963 to launch National Library Week called good libraries "as essential to an educated and informed people as the school system itself." The equating of a library with a school system provides a perspective with tremendous scope.

In an April 21, 1963 news release (8)

sponsored by the National Book Committee, Inc., in cooperation with the American Library Association, National Book Week was referred to as "a coast-to-coast festival on behalf of the civilized mind." Reading and libraries of all kinds shared this one-week spotlight and its dual aim of raising the status of reading and of libraries. School library resources provide the physical foundation of teaching and learning; command of the reading-thinking processes provides the mental foundation.

Fifth is the belief that word-attack skills can be taught functionally with attention focused on meaning clues or context clues. The dictionary and its authority needs to be recognized and used as early in a reader's life as circumstances permit, in first grade for most children. Phonic and structural clues can be excellent auxiliary aids.

Surveys of teachers' knowledge of phonic generalizations show, however, that they do not know the rules (1), though they believe phonics should be taught and often insist they are teaching it. Why then are they so ignorant of the rules and generalizations? If teachers cannot remember the rules can we expect children to do so? As Nila B. Smith (12) has pointed out, the American educational scene has developed a phonics tyrant. How wonderful it would be if the same "logicians" could organize a "reading for meaning" tyrant and put emphasis where it belongs. Then phonics could assume its appropriate auxiliary role.

Sixth is the belief that concept attainment and cognitive structures require early emphasis and soon take precedence over the mechanical aspects of word recognition. This is so because reading in all phases of the curriculum becomes a principal source of knowledge and cognitive structures. The semantic and syntactic aspects of the developmental process of learning-to-read are essentially one.

The case of concepts requires a tough mind—a mind whose main features are reflective awareness and deliberate control, tempered by "warm-blooded" affective inference. These features must be formed and molded as one passes from undifferentiated vagueness to the development of perception, intention, cognition, and memory (2). Throughout the early school years, children must be helped to grow in awareness and mastery until they are capable of conscious and deliberate control and creative use of concepts.

Intelligence is coming to be viewed as problem-solving capacity (7). This capacity is based on a hierarchical organization of symbolic representations on the one hand and information processing strategies on the other. Action or actions constitute the key aspect of all cognitive functioning. Overt and covert actions are the common denominator of cognitive functioning, and language is the system *par excellence* without which thought could never become socialized and logical (5).

The principal outcome of all this is that teachers must teach reading in a way that will require children to pose questions and seek answers, to experiment, to manipulate, to reconcile what they find at one time or one place with what they find at another, and to compare their findings with each other.

Seventh is the belief that the major purpose of most reading instruction is to improve comprehension. The route to maturity in reading and comprehension is best characterized by a cognitive form known as representational thought (5). Such thought can recall the past, represent the present, and anticipate the future in one brief and mobile act; it can reflect on, mediate, or contemplate a source of action; it can extend its scope to the past, to the future, and to the intangible; and it becomes socialized as a whole culture shares in a system of codified symbols. Represen-

tational thought is a general facility and basic to both private symbols (dreams, symbolic play, imitation) and social signs (words and mathematical and scientific symbols). The *sine qua non* of representational thought in the words of Piaget appear to be reversibility (every logical or mathematical operation is reversible), mobile equilibrium (a system of balanced interchanges), and conservations (certain properties remain invariant in the face of certain transformations), and so on until a pupil can deal with hypotheses that may or may not be true, or until he can consider the form of an argument without regard to its content. Then problem solving takes on a new level as a child orients toward organized data, the isolation and control of variables, the hypothetical, and logical justification and proof.

Eighth is the belief that the mature reader is the reader who knows how to adapt his rate of reading to the purposes for which he is reading and the nature and difficulty of the material. The mature reader does not read everything at the same rate--he is versatile and adapts.

Ninth is the belief that, as a person reads and comprehends, new concepts are attained and reality is objectified. These operations pervade the personal-social-affective acts in which children engage. Their goals and values become more stabilized as they read. Repeated interchanges with peers cause them to come to grips with the viewpoints and perspectives of others. As a result children gradually move from egocentrism to the multiperspective reversibility of grouping structure and cultural maturity (5).

Of course, we have a responsibility to select books for children. There are books to help children understand and adjust to their physical world and their social world and to help them meet their emotional, esthetic, and spiritual needs. In short there are books that will help a child understand and accept himself and books that will help him learn to live with others.

Tenth is the belief that the hard-to-measure outcomes of critical and creative reading must be measured and must replace tests that measure only superficial evidence of reading performance. This is urgent, because the measuring rod in a significant degree determines what will be brought forth to be measured. Standardized and informal tests must both do more than focus on symptoms of reading difficulty.

Growth toward reading maturity must have an early start and must take into account the convictions about reading instruction described. Just as Dewey refers to democracy as the highest form of social cooperation, so directed reading-thinking activities provide the best form of pedagogical and intellectual cooperation. If children are to acquire the noble detachment of a scholar, they must avoid premature crystallization of ideas by placing faith in inquiry and in a sense of order and direction. Without these qualities, they become intellectual vagrants, inclined toward fixed dogmas and incantations and imposed tyranny.

[JANUARY 1969]

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Patricia Parker

What Comes after Mother Goose?

The young child of nursery age decides what crayon to use next in his coloring book by solemnly reciting the counting out rhyme, "Eeny, meeny, miney, mo." Another child, thousands of miles away, becomes familiar with numbers by chanting, "One, two, buckle my shoe." These children from widely separated homes and backgrounds have an important tradition in common. They are expressing themselves in rhymes which are a common heritage of English-speaking people throughout the world.

This heritage of rhyme to which most children are exposed long before they learn to read is basically of two types. One is that accumulation of rhymes which circulates orally from child to child, usually outside the home and beyond the influence of the family circle.[1] In spite of the fact that these rhymes are seldom written down, and that they are quite often not even approved by adults, they travel with tenacity from one part of the globe to another.

These are the verses which children recite when playing together, whether it is skipping rope to "Mother, Mother, I feel sick; send for the doctor, quick, quick, quick," or cementing a friendship by linking the little fingers of the right hands and chanting, "Make friends, make friends, never, never break friends."

Patricia Parker is an assistant professor of library science at Augsburg College.

[1]Iona and Peter Opie, *Lore and Language of Schoolchildren* (New York: Oxford University Press, Inc., 1959), p. 1.

This is the language of the playground which Iona and Peter Opie describe so well in their book, *Lore and Language of Schoolchildren*.[2] Through their study, the Opies have brought to our attention not only the vitality of oral transmission and tradition which children perpetuate but also the naturalness with which children express themselves in rhyme. Certainly this is a universal and recognizable kind of poetic background which children have when they enter school.

The nursery rhymes, or Mother Goose rhymes as they are more commonly called, become part of most children's repertoire of verse by quite a different route. Primarily, children are introduced to the traditional nursery rhymes by adults, particularly parents. Long before most children can read they become aware of these verses. When the occasion arises, these age-old rhymes pass almost unconsciously from parent to child. When the young child says, "I wish I had," most mothers almost automatically recite the verse, "If wishes were horses, beggars would ride." Likewise, when the parent is putting the child to bed, it seems most natural to sing the words of the Mother Goose rhyme, "Rock-abye baby, in the tree top."

Fortunate, indeed, is the young child who hears a variety of these verses. Because of their melodious language, he repeats them and repeats them and through this repetition they become a permanent part of his poetic background. Annis Duff, in her book *Bequest of Wings*, states that

[2]Ibid.

memory in the early years is both receptive and tenacious.[3] Certainly the ease with which we remember our earliest learned rhymes reinforces this statement.

Teachers recognize the value of the wealth of rhymes which most children have accumulated by the time they begin their formal education. Particularly teachers are prepared to use the common bond of knowledge and experiences which the acceptable Mother Goose rhymes provide. It is possible to use these rhymes freely and surely since we are confident that they are a legitimate introduction to English poetry. As Robert Graves, the noted English poet, said, "The best of the older ones are nearer to poetry than the greatest part of the Oxford Book of English Verse."[4] With this kind of assurance and with a natural poetic response from children, there is a genuine meeting of minds between teachers and children about what is good and exciting poetry in the beginning year of school.

Fortunately we no longer have to rely on oral transmission to communicate Mother Goose rhymes. Today we are able to indulge the natural affection for Mother Goose through a great variety of interpretations. Outstanding artists of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries have felt the need to express their individual talents by illustrating collections of rhymes. An examination of such modern volumes as that illustrated by Raymond Briggs with his warm, humorous drawings,[5] the gloriously bright art of Brian Wildsmith,[6] or the subtle charm of Philip Reed's woodcuts[7] makes us aware of the diverse themes and varied interpretations possible with these deceptively simple verses.

With such a variety of Mother Goose collections to choose from and with the assurance that this is a worthwhile and entertaining introduction to English poetry, classroom teachers proceed to make full use of verses to motivate reading, to encourage listening and participation in games and singing, and to stimulate aesthetic responses through visual encounter with some of the most important artists of our time.

What follows this enthusiastic introduction to English poetry? How is the child's natural receptiveness to rhyme encouraged? What comes after Mother Goose?

Whether the attraction for "words in tuneful order" is developed beyond a very rudimentary stage depends upon many factors, not least of which is the teacher's commitment to furthering the response to verse and a knowledge of how to proceed.

Because the nursery rhymes are short, rhythmical, and lighthearted, it is relatively easy to move from them to humorous verse and still maintain the high interest of children. The limerick is one form of humorous verse which is a perennial favorite of children. It not only serves to increase their knowledge of existing poetry but also stimulates interest of youngsters in writing poetry of their own.

Edward Lear remains the great master of the limerick. Since his first book of limericks accompanied by the outrageously funny sketches appeared in 1846, his talents have been enthusiastically received by each new generation of school children. In addition to the limerick, Edward Lear is responsible for other nonsensical verse which children continue to discover with

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[3]Annis Duff, *Bequest of Wings* (New York: The Viking Press, Inc., 1954), p. 77.

[4]Iona and Peter Opie, *Oxford Dictionary of Nursery Rhymes* (New York: Oxford University Press, Inc., 1951), p. 2.

[5]Raymond Briggs, *Mother Goose Treasury* (New York: Coward-McCann, Inc., 1963).

[6]Brian Wildsmith, *Brian Wildsmith's Mother Goose* (New York: Franklin Watts, Inc., 1965).

[7]Philip Reed, *Mother Goose and Nursery Rhymes* (New York: Atheneum Publishers, 1963).

great joy. The voyage of the Jumblies who "went to sea in a sieve" and the Owl and the Pussycat who set forth on their adventures "in a beautiful pea-green boat" as well as Lear's hilarious alphabet are all appreciated by children. Along with the original Lear drawings in *The Complete Nonsense Book*,[8] children and teachers will enjoy the interpretations of these verses as rendered by Tony Palazzo[9] and L. Leslie Brooke.[10]

From Lear's nonsense "pure and absolute"[11] it is but a short step to the poetry of Lewis Carroll and Laura E. Richards, who also knew instinctively how to awaken children's laughter through poetry. The little crocodile who "welcomes little fishes in, with gently smiling jaws," and "The King-Fisher Song" with its delightful refrain, "Sing beans, sing bones, sing butterflies," are but two examples of Carroll's originality and brilliance. Eccentric characters with nonsensical sounding names mark the poetry of Mrs. Richards; there is constant delight in meeting such personages as "Little John Bottlejohn" and "Mrs. Snipkin and Mrs. Wobblechin."

Jingles, doggerel and nonsense verse lead quite naturally to a familiarity with other poets who use humor with ingenuity. One of the most important is A. A. Milne.[12] Mr. Milne's inventive genius is evident in his many poems which are either about children or child-oriented with their emphasis on amusing situations. "The King's Breakfast" with its endearing picture of a most unkinglike king, "Squares" which defies make-believe danger, and "Sir Brian Botany" as it relates the come-down of a bully are all real to children as they learn to appreciate more gently humorous verse.

Rose Fyleman is best remembered for her verses about the fairy world, but she also wrote other poems which rate high in child appeal, such as the subtly humorous "I think mice are nice." Dorothy Aldis uses humor effectively as she interprets the modern child's world through such poems as "Radiator Lions," and Eleanor Farjeon with such a poem as "Cat!" adds a dimension to humorous poetry which is delightful.

These are but a few of the many poets who have written with an amusing appeal to children. For the teacher who feels the need to broaden her general knowledge of this type of poetry for young children, such anthologies as *A Little Laughter*,[13] *A Pocketful of Rhymes*,[14] *The Moon Is Shining Bright as Day*[15] and *Oh, What Nonsense*[16] are good to consult for their inclusion of many different poets.

The primary teacher who has the desire to stimulate a poetic response from her students and who acquaints herself with a wide circle of imaginative poets succeeds in laying the groundwork for potential lifetime enjoyment of poetry among her students. As children enter the intermediate grades, however, they may undergo significant changes in their attitudes to poetry.

That is not to say that meaningful poetry experiences in the primary grades are not

[8]Edward Lear, *The Complete Nonsense Book*, edited by Lady Strachey (New York: Dodd, Mead & Company, 1942).
[9]Edward Lear, *Edward Lear's Nonsense Book*, selected and illustrated by Tony Palazzo (Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1956).
[10]Edward Lear, *The Jumblies and Other Nonsense Verses*, with drawings by L. Leslie Brooke (New York: Frederick Warne & Company, 1907).
[11]Mary F. Thwaite, *From Primer to Pleasure* (London: Library Association, 1963), p. 126.
[12]A. A. Milne, *Now We Are Six* and *When We Were Very Young*, rev. eds. (New York: E. P. Dutton & Company, Inc., 1961).
[13]Katherine Love (ed.), *A Little Laughter* (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1957).
[14]Katherine Love (ed.), *A Pocketful of Rhymes* (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1946).
[15]Ogden Nash (comp.), *The Moon Is Shining Bright as Day* (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1953).
[16]William Cole (ed.), *Oh, What Nonsense* (New York: The Viking Press, Inc., 1966).

important but that, regardless of the fine initial introduction and excitement, these experiences will be of little long-range importance if poetry is not continued in the intermediate grades. Children quite naturally tend to use poetry less in play as they progress in school. Boys and girls are apt to be divided as to what is considered acceptable poetry. During the middle grades, the writing of poetry becomes for some a chore or even an embarrassment, and listening to poetry may be considered the most boring aspect of the school day.

Many teachers in the intermediate grades also seem to lose that initial excitement and spontaneity about the free use of poetry which is so prevalent in the primary grades. We seem to flounder over what the children will respond to in poetry. Every teacher has suffered from indecision at one time or another over a particular poem as she moves from sure-fire nonsense verse to lyric poetry. We like Walter de la Mare's poems and yet we hesitate over them. "The Magnifying Glass" which can "make magic talk" is about a subject of interest to children, and yet the words call for a greater sensitivity to poetry than some poems the children have encountered to this time. Will the boys find "The Best Games the Fairies Play" too sissy? How will the class react to Christina Rossetti's "Who Has Seen the Wind?" What is the best way to introduce the fine lyric poems of William Blake? In other words, what poems will not only be acceptable but joyous contributions to the child's total education?

Reading textbooks for the middle grades do not offer much in the way of guidance. Most of them pay token attention to poetry through offering a smattering of seasonal verse, doggerel and poetry which has special meaning for particular holidays. Many textbooks vary as to when to present a particular poem, and the same poem may appear in the third grade text of one series and in an eighth grade English textbook in another. This is inevitable, since there is no one correct time to present a particular poem. However, it does mean that if a child is exposed to textbooks in different series he could meet the same poem several times, which certainly does not lead to a large acquaintanceship with many poets, nor does it give the child a sense of personal growth.

This means that, if the initial excitement about poetry is to grow and if we as teachers sincerely believe that poetry is something more than an academic exercise or an educational frill, we must be imaginative both in choosing poetic selections and in presenting them.

It is helpful to keep some guidelines in mind to aid in making our choices of poems which will enhance the learning experiences of children and also to prepare them for the more mature presentation of poetry in junior and senior high school. Children like poems of today, of the immediate environment, poems dealing with common experiences; poems about pets, poems about nature, poems of adventure. These are the themes to keep in mind as we choose. As one teacher said to me as we sat in her classroom overlooking a drab playground in a less privileged part of the city, "It is important that these children learn to appreciate what beauty can be found around them. The trees, their friends, even the city can be made beautiful to the poorest child, through poetry, which touches on these things."

Children in the elementary grades should have a good exposure to free verse, both because they like abstract forms and also to learn that poetry is not synonymous with meter; that it is the content which dictates the form of poetry. "Spring and All" by William Carlos Williams is a new way to approach an old subject, "The People" by Elizabeth Madox Roberts provides a

fresh new look at the world around us and the "little silent Christmas tree" of E. E. Cummings is a jewel-like rendition of a traditional theme. Certainly this exposure to a less rigid rhyme scheme while the child is in the elementary grades would help prevent the situation when the child is introduced to this kind of unrhymed verse for the first time in junior high school, an all too often painful experience.

Children like poems by other children. When these poems are carefully chosen, they help to build confidence. They come to realize that not all good poetry is written by adults, and the response may be an enthusiastic try at writing poetry. Short poems usually get the best reception, and the rule should be rather too few than too many poems at one listening.

Readiness to participate in and to communicate the enjoyment of poetry must be based on knowledge of a wide variety of poems from the past and the present. Only with such a background will a teacher feel at ease in presentation. Fortunately, poetry anthologies are currently receiving a great deal of attention from publishers. Never before have teachers had for their use such a handsome array of books of poetry, from the standpoint of both design and content.

Some of these anthologies are compiled with a central theme in mind, such as Lillian Morrison's *Sprints and Distances: Sports in Poetry and the Poetry in Sport,*[17] which is unified by a subject of interest to all youngsters. Other examples of this kind of arrangement are the books by Helen Plotz, one of which is unified by the theme of science and mathematics[18] and another by that of music and dance in poetry.[19] Both of the anthologies by Miss Plotz are usually recommended for junior and senior high school; however, the elementary teacher will find them useful because many of the poems can be used advantageously with children in the middle and upper grades.

Mary Davis' *Girl's Book of Verse*[20] and Gerald McDonald's *A Way of Knowing: A Collection of Poems for Boys*[21] cater to the separatistic tendencies of this age group. Although these anthologies are intended to reassure children that a particular poem is "all right," both contain selections which will appeal equally to boys and girls.

There are other anthologies offering a different approach; *The Silver Swan*[22] gives a rich choice of ballads and poems of the imagination, while *Lean Out of the Window*[23] illustrates the astonishing variety and substance of twentieth century verse.

Such specialized anthologies serve to focus our attention on many poems which we might otherwise overlook, poems about a particular subject or a particular verse form. The more inclusive, general anthologies also merit our attention as we search for poems to present. Two of these are the volumes by Ferris[24] and Arbuthnot,[25] both of which present hundreds of poems covering many subjects and many periods in history. However, the very fact that these include so many poems is apt to be overwhelming, and the choosing of a particular poem becomes more difficult.

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[17] Lillian Morrison (comp.), *Sprints and Distances* (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1965).
[18] Helen Plotz (ed.), *Imagination's Other Place* (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1955).
[19] Helen Plotz (ed.), *Untune the Sky* (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1957).
[20] Mary G. Davis (comp.), *Girl's Book of Verse,* rev. ed. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1952).
[21] Gerald D. McDonald (comp.), *A Way of Knowing* (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1959).
[22] Horace Gregory and Marya Zaturenska (comps.), *The Silver Swan: Poems of Romance and Mystery* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1966).
[23] Sara Hannum and Gwendolyn Reed (comps.), *Lean Out of the Window* (New York: Atheneum Publishers, 1965).
[24] Helen Ferris (ed.), *Favorite Poems Old and New* (Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1957).
[25] May Hill Arbuthnot (ed.), *Time for Poetry,* rev. ed. (Glenview, Ill.: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1961).

Sensing that the general anthology is sometimes stifling, publishers are now meeting the situation by issuing collections which might be called "general selective" anthologies. A good example of this is Herbert Read's *This Way, Delight*[26] which includes poetry of many different types, on various subjects, carefully chosen and tastefully arranged. Such selectivity means that there are fewer poems included in the book, but each poem becomes more aesthetically satisfying when it is not crowded by other selections on the page. These general, selective anthologies are less awkward to handle and usually are more beautifully designed.

For sheer delight in discovery, *The Oxford Book of Poetry for Children*,[27] with its topical arrangement and imaginative illustrations by Brian Wildsmith, stands as one of the best. Such events as Halloween take on new color as we read, "The Hag is astride, this night for to ride,"[28] and relish Wildsmith's rendition of a witch. *The Golden Journey*[29] is not illustrated; however, the beautiful makeup of each page provides a new dimension to poetic enjoyment. Bogan has carefully blended the old and the new in this collection, and even old favorites such as "The Mysterious Cat" by Vachel Lindsay become more obviously meaningful as they appear on an uncluttered page.

Through familiarity with such books, the teacher selects poems she is excited about, but creativity in presentation is still needed if a similar excitement is to be stimulated among the children. The aural element in poetry is of primary importance; poetry begins with sound. Many teachers doubt their ability to read poetry well; however, this can be developed first by really liking the poem and second by being familiar enough with it so the presentation sounds real and spontaneous. Reading aloud together, to promote a mood, is effective, and some teachers like to experiment with more formal verse choirs with certain selections such as "Isabel" by Ogden Nash.

Poetry sharing is very important. These are the times when children ask to "hear again" poems they have particularly enjoyed and to bring their own favorites to share with the class. Because poetry is so personal, the poem book, in which each child accumulates his favorites, is an excellent means of helping youngsters to choose poems with discrimination. This is also an effective way to build a poetry repertoire.

Carefully executed records of poets reading from their works are good to use with children. Recordings by poets like Robert Frost[30] and Langston Hughes[31] can do a great deal to give children the feeling of the cadence and rhythm of poetry. For most of us, poetry is also visual, and teachers will want to experiment with the overhead projector in order that poems may be seen as they are read. It is also helpful for the teacher to make notes showing the response to a particular poem. Through this retrospection, it is possible to gain new insights and build confidence in choosing and perhaps discarding.

Most importantly, we should seek to make poetry a natural part of living and growing. This involves an awareness of the wide spectrum of poetry and a sensitivity to the very different things that poetry is and what poetry can do. [APRIL 1969]

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[26] Herbert Read (ed.), *This Way, Delight* (New York: Pantheon Books, Inc., 1956).
[27] Edward Blishen (comp.), *The Oxford Book of Poetry for Children* (New York: Franklin Watts, Inc., 1963).
[28] Robert Herrick, "The Hag," in *The Oxford Book of Poetry for Children.*
[29] Louise Bogan and William Jay Smith (comps.), *The Golden Journey* (Chicago: Reilly & Lee Books, 1965).
[30] *Robert Frost Reads His Poetry* (New York: Caedmon Records, TC 1060).
[31] *The Dream Keeper* read by Langston Hughes (New York: Folkways/Scholastic Records, 7104).

Robert D. Robinson

The Three Little Pigs: From Six Directions

At first glance you might think I intend to wrap this story up in six neat little packages and be done with it. To a certain extent you are right. I do intend to use some labels—the labels of ethical, historical, psychological, sociological, formal, and archetypal criticism—but I will use these labels only for secondary reasons: first, to give my comments some kind of direction that will be clear to us; and second, to introduce you briefly, but by no means exhaustively, to the meaning of each label. For my greater purpose is to share with you my admiration for this little story. I think it is a masterpiece, worthy of adult attention and respect.

But before I attempt to fulfill my greater purpose, let me first justify literary criticism, if only briefly. Quite often I hear people say, "Why don't you just read a story, a poem, a play for the sake of enjoyment?" Sometimes instead of "enjoyment" they say "appreciation," "pleasure," or "fun." However worded, the implication of the question is the same: "Why don't you let the story be?" Right away the conversation shifts to questions of definition. What is "enjoyment?" "Pleasure?" "Fun?" Or on a deeper level, "being?" The discussion next puts the key words in a living context. Who "enjoys" his car more? The teenage boy who merely drives his car day by day? Or the boy who can rebuild his carburetor in the dark, who has, I would say, a critical understanding of its workings? I think that the answer is obvious. The act of rebuilding any part of a car is more creative than merely driving it. And in critically approaching a work of art, intending thereby to increase his understanding of its being, a reader participates to some extent in the act of artistic creation.

What is a critical approach? Especially, what are these six critical approaches? Rather than engage this question front to front, let me take an oblique stance, and perhaps definitions, at least partial ones, will emerge.

First, a summary of the story, since it may have been years since you read it last. Anxious because her home is too small for a growing family, a mother pig urges her three youngsters to go out into the world and to build homes for themselves—good homes, she says, that will protect them against the wolf. The youngsters first resist her urgings with laziness and irresponsibility until her anxiety breaks out in anger; then they leave her, each one building some kind of shelter: the first pig with straw, the second with sticks, the third with bricks. As the mother had anticipated, the wolf later attacks the dwellings, destroys them, but fails to eat the two pigs living inside. They run to the third house, where the wolf is finally balked in his designs and killed. Working together, the three pigs build two more brick houses and live in them, happily ever after.

Robert D. Robinson is an assistant professor of English at Ohio Northern University.

I

The first kind of critical approach—the psychological—might involve analysis of the source of the initial conflict, that between the two generations, perhaps setting forth behavior patterns for parents and children. Parents desire safety for themselves and their young, they sense danger afar off, they want children to profit from adult experience. Children prefer unstructured activity, play, to organized effort, work. To them, immediate but inconsequential threats, like mother's anger, are really greater in degree than really formidable ones, like the wolf, as long as the formidable ones do not immediately interfere with their welfare. Concerning all of the conflicts in the story, the psychological approach would have as its purpose an analysis of the story that would emphasize the thought patterns of each character and the processes by which these are modified by the environment.

II

The sociological critic would probably deal with environment too, but would emphasize its institutional aspects. The danger to the family really originates in its leadership, in the mother's failure, for one reason or another, probably economic, to build a larger house where the family might continue to live together, stable and safe. She is guilty of another kind of neglect, too. The destruction of the houses of straw and sticks results from her ignorance about the technological resources of her culture, an ignorance perpetuated by the mother in her role as symbol of the educational system. (If I seem to be making a parody of this critical approach, let me assure you I am not. Why I should seem to be doing so, I'll explain in a moment.) Other sources of social failure the critic would find in the disposition and use of property. If socialistic, he would have the men not only give the pigs bricks but build the houses for them; if *laissez faire*, he would have the pigs bake their own bricks.

III

The third approach, used by the historical critic, might hold that the author of this story was directing a heavily veiled attack upon the power structure of the nation in which it was written; let us say England in the 12th century. To him the elements in the story have their parallels in the events of that time. The three little pigs are the English barons, the wolf is power-hungry King John, the houses of brick are the restrictions of *Magna Charta* on the King's voracity. Whereas the psychological critic would say of the dangers overcome that they show the little pigs to have learned from direct experience (learning by doing), and the sociological critic that they prove the maturity of the pigs in their understanding of technology, the historical critic might conclude that they are an ironic comment on the exclusion of the common people of 12th century England not only from the new power structure but from the story itself.

IV

That the story dramatizes a conflict between good and evil, whether historical or not, the fourth critic—the one taking an ethical or moral approach—would assert. He would probably go on to show how the little pigs' experience with the wolf proved the mother's superior knowledge about the enveloping presence of evil in the world, about the necessity to build immediate defenses against it, and about the need for those defenses to be strong. He might not consider, however, the problem of good and evil as seen through the wolf's eyes, nor take up the question of whether boil-

ing the wolf in the pot was quite the moral thing for the pigs to do. If he did, he might say that in destroying evil, innocence is always corrupted.

V

The formalist, the fifth critic, would claim to have a better insight into these moral issues, an insight gained by studying the story as a harmonious blending of parts that justifies ignoring the wolf's pangs of hunger or his death. He would stress some other details in the story than the plot, especially the kinds of patterns to be found in every part of the composition. He would note the compounding of simple actions, "ate and ate," "grew and grew," and the nominatives of address. It is very likely that this last example would alert him to elements that involve not compounding, but tripling, the sets of three: three pigs, three houses, three big doors, three little doors, three men. He would dwell even more on the tripling that goes beyond these simple elements and resides in some of the larger oral structures: three times the mother must speak to the pigs before they leave home; three times the pigs request building materials from the men they meet; three times the pigs sing a celebration to the end of their work; three times the wolf commands each pig to admit him to each house. Moreover, each oral set is verbally harmonious; that is to say the language of the second and third members of a set are almost exact echoes of the language of the first. Almost. The slight variations, for example in the requests, indicate that the author is not working with simple duplication alone but with a variation that has a rising structure—from straw (weak), to sticks (strong), to bricks (strongest).

But in spite of this, enough simple duplication remains to force upon the author a desire for a resolution that will bring parallel elements to a junction. This he finds in the accumulation of *each's* and, especially, in the song which the pigs sing in chorus. The effect of this resolution is, of course, the creation of a set of four's, which, like the sets of three's, should not only harmonize with another structure of a like kind but rise to it for another resolution. Both actions are present in the single structure of four's organizing the whole story. Each unit is identified by a single motif: one, leaving home; two, building homes, defending homes, building new homes.

Of course, the structuralist concludes, to have presented the wolf's side of the story would have introduced elements into the story that might not have harmonized with those already there. As it now stands, the story is a symmetrical blending of parts to make a whole. It is aesthetically satisfying. It is a work of art.

VI

It may be harmonious, our last critic, the archetypal critic, would say, but not because the structuralist says so. It is harmonious because it resonates to patterns of human experience residual in man's unconscious mind since his beginnings thousands of years ago. This story is good because it has been re-enacted ceaselessly across the years; simply put, it is a ritual. Take the three's, for example; they abound in man's experience; in the triune nature of the Judeo-Christian God, in the triangle of geometry, in the three spires of architecture, even in the three phases of the movement of the human heart. These rhythms are basic; they cut across time and space.

Now, more important, consider these themes, also primitive in their origins: the expulsion of the uninitiated from the source of food, comfort, and safety—the mother, or the Garden of Eden, if you will; the journey into danger; the gift of defense from an unusual being (How else should

we account for the presence of men in the story who can communicate with animals?); battle with the powers of darkness, in which the self is put to a test; initiation into a higher awareness of life; and, finally, reconciliation of the initiated to the stern facts of existence and the consequent enrichment of his life and the life of his community.

Some, if not all, of these themes are found in the customs of people who still live close to their origins. Take one example. Among certain tribes of Africa, it is the father or some male relative who initiates, with bodily and mental pain, the young into the adult world. Isn't the wolf in our story really a male figure, perhaps once a disguised father, who is the mother's ally in leading the youngsters toward maturity? Deliberate, premeditated alliance, I believe, as suggested by the mother's emphatic statement that the wolf will appear.

This pattern is also found in other literature. In Homer's Odyssey, the hero leaves safety on the island of Calypso and crosses the dangerous, stormy sea. He is given the gift of her divine presence by Athena to protect him on his journey home. With her assistance he defeats the wicked suitors of his wife and reestablishes himself as king, thus renewing the flow of power between the gods, himself, and his community. Modern examples are J. R. R. Tolkien's *The Lord of the Rings* and *The Hobbit,* both of which are again stories of exile, wandering in danger, defensive gifts, personal tests, and final enrichment of self and community.

Let me change the direction of my comments just a bit to establish a very interesting connection between Mrs. Bidwell's experience with this story and the archetypal approach, a connection that, I think, shows that although this kind of criticism is a rather new one, it is a very useful one to know. You will remember that some of her children were at first reluctant to join in when most of the class repeated certain speeches in the story. The point that the archetypal critic would stress is the fact that finally they did, because for him stories based on themes like those I have mentioned have as their purpose the establishment of a community, in Mrs. Bidwell's instance, a unity of all of the children in the class and, in other instances, since other children will some day react in the same way, a unity knitting many generations together. Archetypal themes secure this effect, I believe, through repetition, just as the themes in marriage ceremonies or presidential inaugurations do, or as children in a classroom do. Repetition, of the kind appearing in this story and in Mrs. Bidwell's class and again on the steps of a government building or before the altar of a church or cathedral, has as its end the effacement of the divisions between peoples and the establishment of a communion, sometimes mystical in its effects, between the living, the dead, and the yet to be. I think Mrs. Bidwell's experience is no small proof of that, as her introductory words about her desire to retain the community of youth further attest.[1]

I am aware that in explaining the formal and the archetypal approaches I may seem to have slighted the other four. I did so, I think, for two reasons. First, the story seemed to reveal more of itself to these two approaches than to the others. Second, I may be biased; I find these of greater interest than the others because, I believe, they, especially the formalist, deal with artistic uses of language. And I, after all, am, or should be, a teacher of language.

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[1]The author is referring to "Three Little Pigs: Primary Style," by Corrinne Bidwell, which also appeared in the March 1968 *Elementary English.* It is an example of simple analysis with young listeners.

Some of the other approaches, especially the historical, the psychological, and the sociological, may tempt the teacher into occupations for which he has poor credentials. If he is not careful, he may use these to damage the story or the critical technique, as I fear I did with the sociological and historical approaches.

I would not, however, avoid using insights to literature offered by the other approaches when, cautiously used, they bring reasonable clarity to a work. In other words, I believe a teacher should have all of these approaches in mind when he prepares a work of literature for class, and he should not scruple to use them when the nature of the work permits. In a work of art as good as this one, there will always be a dimension of meaning that defies understanding, but which the teacher as critic can help his students accept; namely, their own membership in the human race. Seen against the richness of this story, that is not a bad club to belong to; and its proceedings always give the members something to think about.

[MARCH 1968]

LORRAINE STERLING COHEN

Begin Critical Reading in Elementary School

The development of critical thinking has long been considered a prime goal at all levels of the educational process. The development of critical reading should be a concurrent process and need not wait for secondary schools or college.

In their efforts to foster desirable reading habits, teachers find it necessary to have a means of checking on their pupils' reading, and sometimes to require a specific amount of reading to be done. They use a variety of devices, often very creative and imaginative, to get the children to express their reactions to the books they have read. At times the method used consists of discussion, either by the class as a whole or between the teacher and the individual pupil. At such times more than a mere recounting of the plot should be required.

Questions to Develop Understanding

If the child is asked to keep certain questions in mind while reading a book, he will be an active rather than a passive reader and so will truly participate in a learning process. By answering certain leading questions the child will indicate his comprehension of the literal meaning of what he has read as well as his grasp of the author's underlying meaning or theme. In this way he will become a more discerning reader.

The questions posed must vary according to the maturity level of the pupils involved, and according to the type of book under discussion. Some general questions could be asked in an introductory class discussion, for instance:

Should all books be read for fun only?
Should all books be read in the same way?
Should all books make you think?
Should all books be read for information?
Should all books teach the reader something new?

Begin with Plot Emphasis

In the earlier elementary years, or with a slower group of children, the teacher might begin with simple questions relating to the plot, such as: What happened? And perhaps a question to help the reader differentiate between realism and fantasy: Could such a thing really happen? The pupil might also be asked to use a word or phrase to describe the kind of story he had read—funny, sad, exciting, adventurous, scary, *etc.*

Identify Setting

Questions about the setting of a book might follow in a later assignment:

Where did this story take place, *i.e.*, in a rural or city background, or in what part of the world?

How does the author indicate this? Does he tell the location by naming the city or country, by describing the locale, by using foreign names or words?

Could this story take place anywhere else without many changes?

Lorraine Sterling Cohen is the librarian of the Main Street Elementary School, Port Washington, New York.

If the book is illustrated, do the pictures help tell where the story takes place?

When did this story take place? Right now, when your parents were children, when your grand-parents were children, a very long time ago?

How does the author tell you? Does he make direct statements? Can you tell by descriptions of the clothes people in the story wear, their means of transportation, their household appliances? Had radio, the movies, or TV been invented yet?

Do the illustrations indicate any of this information?

Character Development

If the book read is a family story, some of the questions about it might be:

Would you like to be a member of that family? Why?

Which member of the family would you particularly like to have for a friend?

Which character would you like to be?

Did any of the characters change during the story? Give an example.

When biographies are read, there is further opportunity to discuss character development as shown by authors, by asking the following questions:

Would you like to have the subject of this biography as a friend? As a member of your family? Why?

Was he easy or difficult to get along with?

Did he have any faults? What were they?

Was this person a great man in your estimation? What qualities made him great, other than achievements in his field?

Thematic Approach

Some teachers find the thematic approach to required class reading effective. They may assign certain groups or entire classes to read books on brotherhood, courage, problems faced by children of minority groups, and so on. The school librarian's help should be enlisted to find appropriate books on the assigned theme at varying interest and ability levels to suit individual children. Many questions are applicable in discussing books of this nature. For example:

Did this book teach you anything new? If so, what?

Was it new facts, new ways of seeing people (new attitudes), something new about yourself (new insight), that is, a recognition of a feeling or characteristic of which you were not previously aware?

Do boys and girls in your school, neighborhood, or community ever meet situations like those in the book? Do you think they would react to them in the same way as the boys and girls in the story did?

If this book had a special problem, state the problem. How was it solved in the book? Would you have made the same decision and solved the problem the same way? What other way could it have been solved?

Analogies

No matter what type of book read, the pupil can be led to make analogies and asked to compare the book he has read with another.

Can you think of another story in which there is a similar problem?

Did this story remind you in any way of another one?

Was there someone in this story who reminded you of a person you know in real life or have met in books?

Did the way this book was written or illustrated remind you of another book?

Critical Reading Accompanies Critical Thinking

All through the elementary years teachers are deeply concerned with the urgent need to develop each child's maximum reading skill. Teaching children to understand the literal meaning of reading content need not, however, conflict with the development of critical reading. Real comprehension must imply more than knowing the meaning of the words read; the readers should also understand the ideas that those words are intended to convey. The proper teaching of reading must involve the teaching of thinking. [APRIL 1967]

Critical Reading

HELEN L. WARDEBERG

Critical reading is a term that appears again and again in the literature on the teaching of reading, particularly in the context of the comprehension skills. Like so many of our expressions, it apparently means different things to different people.

Critical reading is interpreted by some to mean the ability to detect and to analyze propaganda techniques, to recognize the distortions deliberately used in advertising and in political persuasion. In this interpretation, teaching critical reading means helping pupils to detect such devices as card stacking or name calling and to be aware of the "power and tyranny" of words such as euphemisms, emotive words, or cliches.

One could infer that our whole system of government depends on our being trained to detect the devious methods of the political persuader. Sometimes the impression is given that had the German schools only trained critical readers, the holocaust of Nazism need not have occurred, since the German population would have been not only literate (as they were) but so skilled in propaganda detection that they would not have succumbed to the persuasion of the press. Nonetheless there is much genuine concern about the ease with which people can apparently be misinformed and misled about economic, social, and political issues of the day.

Critical reading is interpreted by others to be synonymous with critical thinking. The late David Russell in his book, *Children's Thinking*, identified it as the process of examining materials in the light of objective evidence, comparing this with some norm or standard, and concluding or acting upon the judgment thus made. Recent research conducted by Professor Robert Ennis at Cornell University is based on the definition: "As a root notion, critical thinking is taken to mean the correct assessing of statements." More specifically, the critical thinker is characterized by proficiency in judging whether

1. a statement follows from the premises
2. something is an assumption
3. an observation statement is reliable
4. a hypothesis is warranted
5. a simple generalization is warranted
6. a theory is warranted
7. an argument depends on an ambiguity
8. a statement is overvague or overspecific
9. an alleged authority is reliable.

Critical thinking is considered a desirable ability and teachers are urged to teach pupils some ways of thinking critically. One can learn the characteristic pattern of the syllogism and other types of formal logic; one can learn the pattern for solving problems and testing hypotheses. Evidence is quite clear that young children can think in these terms much as adults do, within the limits of their experience and capacity to use language.

A third way in which critical reading is interpreted is as literary criticism. An analysis or detailed study of a literary work

Helen L. Wardeberg is a professor of education at Cornell University. The article is based on an address given at an NCTE-IRA meeting at the 1965 NCTE convention in Boston.

is made in order to show the characteristics of its composition, style, and ideas and its aesthetic, moral, or philosophical values. Here again some techniques or approaches that can be taught have been delineated.

These then are three ways in which the term "critical reading" is treated in the literature: as propaganda detection, as critical thinking, and as literary analysis. It is generally considered to be a desirable ability. Everyone is *for* it, much as one is for any of the virtues. Teachers are exhorted to teach critical reading from the kindergarten through the graduate school. Yet, I doubt that it is the function of instruction in critical reading to develop doubters, cynicists, and disbelievers, those trained to apply their detection devices to every bit of printed material—any more than it is to develop those who believe everything they encounter in print, simply because "the book says so." Nor do I think it is the function of such instruction to develop logicians who can pursue the syllogism or the metaphor, who can analyze data impersonally, indefinitely "suspending judgment"—any more than it is to develop those who unquestioningly follow an author however illogical and unsystematic his thoughts may be. In the same way, I doubt that it is the function of instruction in critical reading to develop literary critics, sophisticated, arbitrary mediators—any more than it is to foster an untrained, undisciplined, sieve-like mind that cannot discrimate quality.

Columnist Ray Cromley in his *Washington Notebook* recently commented that we are developing in the United States a professional group of protestors. He describes a young man . . .

> What he is, is a professional "aginner." He's against anything handy that comes along. He was against his teachers when he was in high school. He is against the police when they object to his hot rodding. He's against anyone who objects to anything he does. . . . Men and women like this are a growing group. They don't study up on the things they protest. They just go along. They are the confused. . . .[1]

It is fashionable in some circles these days to be as someone said, "Students who learn to criticize before they learn anything else." Certainly we need our critics but it is unfortunate if critical reading becomes equated with a negative, cynical attitude that has little creative, positive, or innovative to give.

Lack of ability to criticize or insight to question what the author says is indeed deplorable. Certainly we need the "aginners," but we need also to keep in mind the point of critical reading attributed to Lord David Cecil: "To train our taste is to increase our capacity for pleasure; it enables us to enter into such a variety of experience." There is certainly little pleasure in much of what is considered criticism today, either in the process or the result, except perhaps the pleasure of showing how clever one is.

These three interpretations of critical reading have some common elements, in spite of their varied emphases. Dictionaries define the terms such as "critical," "criticize," and "criticism" in two ways. This may account in part for the different interpretations. For example in one commonly used dictionary one finds "1. given to judging, especially fault-finding; censorious, and 2. involving or exercising careful judgment or observation." In another, under synonyms: "Critical *may* describe a disposition to find and to stress faults . . . It *may* describe fair, judicious evaluation." In a thesaurus one finds lists of words in the nature of "judging," "discriminating," or "commenting" about as often as words like "censoring" or "fault finding". The *Diction-*

[1] Ray Cromley, "Beware the Aginners," *Washington Notebook*, Newspaper Enterprise Association, 1965.

ary of Education defines critical reading as that "in which the reader evaluates what he reads in terms of its authenticity, beauty, usefulness, or some other value." One characteristic or element then common to these interpretations of critical reading is *thinking about* and *evaluating* that which one reads. Judging, discriminating, questioning are inherent in the process; this implies some norms, some criteria, some experience as a basis for comparison.

Another factor common to all interpretations of critical reading is that the very nature of the reading process channels us along certain lines and establishes certain requirements for the reader that might not be true if he were merely listening or observing. In the first place one must read accurately and precisely for exactly what the author says. This is sometimes called comprehension, or understanding, or getting the primary meaning from the printed page. Questions of the "what, who, when, where" type guide us. It may be necessary to think very hard in order to understand what the author says, particularly if one's experiences are limited in this area, if the language used is unfamiliar, or if the ideas themselves are abstract. One of the advantages of reading, however, is that we can take the time to go back, to pause while we ponder or reflect—or check it out. The printed page stands still for us, in contrast to other media.

Understanding what is written is only the beginning, however. One must then interpret the literal meaning in terms of the author's probable purpose and in terms of one's own personal knowledge of similar situations. The "why, what about, how come, what makes, account for, how about" questions lead us to analyze, make inferences, and put information together. We are aware of the author trying, as every writer does, to influence us. We note the special uses of language—imagery, emotional connotations, symbolism, allusion, irony. We consider the restrictions as well as the unity of effect that results from the form the author uses—poetry, comedy, even advertising copy.

The distinction between interpretive and appreciative reading is not clearcut. However, the appreciative reader does more than interpret the literal meaning in relation to his own experiences. He is able to extend the concepts and ideas thus gained, to reflect on them, to reincorporate them as part of his own personal growth and as a guide to his own behavior.

Appreciation may be defined as the act of estimating the qualities of things (including ideas), and of giving them their due value. Critical reading is a part of this appreciation. The critical reader is able to evaluate the printed material in terms of varied criteria, selecting those appropriate to the type of composition, to the intent of the author, and to the reader's own needs and purposes. This helps him to discriminate the tawdry, the cheap, the insidious, the pornographic from the beautiful, the unique, the forthright, and the authentic.

The reader interacts with the author in communication of ideas, information, and enjoyment. As Alice Dalgliesh says, "A book has no life except in the mind of the reader." He senses the tone—the emotional impact of the writing. He considers whether the form the author uses as the means of expressing his ideas is appropriate and serves his purpose well. The ideas themselves are judged, sorted, and stored with our other ideas.

The reader probably cannot think critically about ideas which he cannot grasp; he may not think critically about those in which he has little interest, concern, or involvement. Therefore, not all things one reads are suitable for critical reading. Much can be rejected at the interpretive level as not being worth further consideration or effort.

Two common elements in critical reading, whether the material read is a piece of literature, a political essay, a piece of advertising, or a philosophical treatise, are the habit of judging, valuing, categorizing, discriminating, and the awareness of the uniqueness of communicating through the printed page rather than through other media, such as television, conversation, or observing.

Another common characteristic less clearly seen is that critical reading, like any of the creative acts, is very personal in nature, allowing for many options, judgments, and decisions. It is not the kind of thing that can be put in a yes-no multiple-choice test item. Most of the questions typically raised by teachers do not get at it; in fact they often discourage it. Critical reading requires time; it requires a climate that allows one to explore, to state opinions tentatively; it requires supportive guidance and the opportunity to react honestly and with integrity.

People of all ages and abilities have some potential to be critical thinkers; it is evident to anyone who deals with young children that they think, rigorously and searchingly. Their *why* questions reflect their attempt to make some sense out of life, to find some patterns by which the world operates. At the same time we know that children, as well as adults, who are treated as if they cannot think or judge, or who are led to believe that they should *not* question, will learn *not to think*. This we sometimes call "educational atrophy."

This leads us to consider conditions in schools that facilitate or that interfere with the development of critical reading. Russell wrote:

> Irrationality in thinking occurs when the challenge to the individual is too severe, when he does not have the resources to meet the questioning of an idea close to the heart of his own personality or philosophy. If we are threatened by a statement or idea, it is hard to consider it unemotionally and critically.[2]

It seems reasonably clear also that the individual threatened by a situation, fearful of failing, of being ridiculed or laughed at, or of not having "right answers," will find it hard to consider any idea unemotionally or critically, if at all.

John Holt charges in his book, *How Children Fail:*

> Even in the kindest and gentlest of schools, children are afraid, many of them a great deal of the time, some of them almost all the time.[3]

We are not likely to develop critical thinking, much less critical reading if that is true. Apparently many children learn in school that it is most important to get "the right answer." There is a premium on "right answers," given fast.

Pupils learn to avoid thinking, because thinking may get them in trouble. It is safer just to give a quick and simple answer. They learn that there really isn't time to think nor is there any reward for it. There are just more answers to get, more pages to complete, more tasks to face. And for many children none of it makes very much sense. There simply isn't time or opportunity to organize, much less to contemplate or reflect on it all. Even at the college level, a recent Harvard Study Committee reported:

> Our impression is that we probably ask our students to read too much and too fast; we ask them to listen passively too much of the time, and to think not nearly enough. We suggest therefore a greater attempt to elicit the critical thought, discussion and reflective writing of sudents. . . .

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[2] David H. Russell, "The Prerequisite: Knowing How to Read Critically," *Elementary English*, 40 (October, 1963) 582.

[3] John Holt, *How Children Fail*. New York: Pitman Publishing Corporation, 1964, p. 39.

All teachers, from the kindergarten to the graduate school, can help pupils grow in their ability to read critically. All teachers can by the same token use such devices as fear, ridicule, anxiety, and reward to stifle thinking. We can structure learning situations where the opportunity and the encouragement to develop critical reading is evident, if we truly think it is important for students to think, to react honestly, to judge, to discriminate. And we can create quite the opposite condition also.

We can teach the quick techniques of the propaganda detector. We can give students a list of "loaded" words, some examples of card stacking, and so on. We can teach the form of syllogistic thinking, the questions of the assessor of statements. We can teach the techniques of literary criticism and the standards by which a literary composition can be judged. And without doubt this is important. Certainly we do have a lot of people who unfortunately are "gullible," who sincerely believe or act as if they believe that anything in print must be true, who fail to read even at the literal level, much less the appreciative or critical level. Yet are they not the product of our teaching, the embodiment of what we as teachers *really* consider important, in spite of what we say?

It takes much more, I think, to develop critical readers who really enjoy the faculty of appreciation; who continue to refine their taste, insight, discrimination, who maintain enthusiasm and sharpened perception—the artists of appreciation, rather than the grumblers and the cynics or the pseudo-sophisticates who really don't know how to feel, much less express, enjoyment and appreciation. This takes time. It takes quantities of material, even some things not necessarily of our own appreciative choosing. It takes freedom from pressure and panic, from anxiety and fear. Above all it takes teachers who care—who are themselves connoisseurs rather than faultfinders and "aginners"; teachers who are receptive to varied interpretations, to questions, to new perceptions; teachers who themselves continue in what Lord Cecil calls the "long and unhurried process of self-training."

[MARCH 1967]

SAM LEATON SEBESTA

My Son, the Linguist and Reader

They're going to teach my son how to read next autumn. It's time and he knows it. He already reads fallen leaves, puddles, things the builders left, cat-personalities, and how-the-distantly-viewed-mountains-feel-today better than I do. Words? He's picked up almost more than he can chew: can couple and triple-double-couple them, box-car fashion; can sing them out melodiously and harmoniously to the tunes of speech; has even authored a few himself, such as "Pooh-jump" for the beginner's soft-snow ski slope.

I have considerable respect for my son. He's a field scholar in the sense that he goes around making mental notes, compiling information, using his findings to make hypotheses, and then trying them out. That's a respectable approach in anybody's business; but what really impresses me is that he doesn't flinch at the rigors of his trade so long as he considers it useful. I mean, he'll practice something several dozen times—like getting the garden gate open or saying the best part of "Susie's Galoshes"—until the performance fulfills his expectations. At such moments, the intensity of his gaze reminds me of a balletomane I once knew—a man who matched rigor with art.

My son, linguist and scholar that he is, hasn't formally turned his attention to that aspect of reading which the specialists call decoding. That is, he has made no concerted attempt to work out the mysteries by which print represents speech, or, more narrowly, by which visual symbol represents sound symbol. Not that he's incapable or disinterested. He knows car models and written names of car models with an accuracy that I, with my mechanical stanine of 1, can't hope to equal. He distinguishes the sign saying MEN from the sign saying WOMEN, in caps or lower case, and even GENTLEMEN from LADIES—the results of a (to him) embarrassing experience that took place twice last summer at Yosemite.

So far, his negligible efforts at reading have been hit-and-miss and highly functional. "The King's Breakfast," a poem that suits his rather selective taste, took him almost no time to memorize, and he sang "A Frog Went A'Courting" after three hearings. I was surprised that he responded the way he did to these memorized poems when he saw them in print. He "read" them, even picking out phrases and words. It wasn't a transferable type of decoding. Still, it was a beginning.

I'd say that he's ready and willing to start the big task, my son the linguist and scholar.

"Linguistic Readers"

Yet, I worry. And here's the reason. I have few doubts about my son's predisposition to read, but I *do* doubt the predisposition of the writers who assembled the materials he's supposed to read *from*. Those materials are called linguistic readers. Never mind the specific series, since there are several of the sort. Their rationale and contents are based on the manuscript pre-

Sam Leaton Sebesta is a professor of education at the University of Washington, Seattle.

pared a quarter of a century ago by a foremost linguist, Leonard Bloomfield, and published in 1961 after his death (2). Their contention is that my son should not be concerned with meaning in his early reading, that his sole task must be to learn a consistent sound-letter relationship. Thus the first lessons will present *can, man, fan, Dan* or the like, attempting to establish this connection in an infallible way. Infallible to what, I wonder?

I suppose my son might respond to this sort of thing. Surely, he must master the sound-spelling relationship. "The King's Breakfast" can't turn the total trick. He has to have guidance in decoding. Still, it seems a heavy price—this abstinence from meaning, this turning away from memory and melody of words-strung-together.

It may be good and wise, but I submit that the goodness and wisdom have not been proved, or, to my way of thinking, well-supported. In the First-Grade Studies of Reading sponsored by the U. S. Office of Education such materials appeared to equal and sometimes slightly surpass others when the criterion emphasized word-decoding, but I view with alarm (as they say in newspaper columns) the slight discrepancy in Paragraph Reading (7, 8, 9). I note, too, that the short-term results so far measured tell us nothing about the long-range results harvested from such materials after the pupil has attained the age of intermediate grades and adolescence.

The Linguists

Now, before the first bell summons my son, before these so-called linguistic readers usher in a new tide of non-psychological logic, let me ask two pertinent questions. If we must stick by our camps, let me specify that the first question ought to go to the linguists, since it's a linguistic one. And the second is for my son's teachers and their professors.

Who can defend the premise that decoding instruction begins with sound-to-letter relationships exclusive of syntax? The linguist can't tell us this. He's been demonstrating admirably that language, especially *our* language, comes in whole cloth, its distinguishable patterns deriving *not* essentially from single sounds or single words but from utterances and sentence patterns. By whose logic is my son expected to begin his reading task with the smallest units, the threads instead of the patterns? Is he also going to study North America by "learning" one square mile at a time?

Actually, today's linguists do not, as a group, favor any such system. Only the reader-writers, fixating on the table of phonemes, ignore the vast, fascinating structure of language which the linguist has charted. Knowledgeable men, including Robert L. Allen, John B. Carroll, and Carl A. Lefevre, have adamantly shown that the phoneme-grapheme relationship can be only a subservient part of the speech-writing relationship (1, 3, 5). To focus on it alone is to invite the undistinguished label of reductionism, the fallacy of pretending that one part equals the whole.

Is it plausible that my son, having laboriously learned to mouth a sound in response to a visual symbol, will automatically suffuse these noises into a melody of speech? Sirs! My son can roar and screech most admirably, but he does not confuse noise with sound nor blather with language! It is a beginning step, you say; but my son's "beginning steps" with language came some years ago, and, even then, his single-phoneme or single-word utterance represented a whole syntactical context somewhere in the chambers of his consciousness (10).

The Educators

This, too, I would like to have answered. Reading is a process by which I, his father,

find out about something. It is no ballet of the eyeballs to vocal or subvocal accompaniment just for enjoyment of the exercise. To the extent that I benefit from my reading, I derive satisfaction and profit from using reading in my search for and apprehension of meaning. Surely this is the only intrinsic goal of reading.

Yet it appears that not all adults, including successful "decoders," are able to meet such a goal. Perhaps all of us at times engage in a no-benefit system of saying the words while thinking of something else. At such times we become what Perry and Whitlock termed Good Boy Readers, our motives all too permanently shaped by distantly remembered teachers and teacher-surrogates who rewarded us for learning the "golden rule of Good Boy Reading: 'Never skip words and don't ask questions'" (6:92).

The figures and facts relevant to the reading problems of American adults question, above all, our competence and motives in comprehension, not our inability to decode. The studies of upper-grade and adult reading, including Gray and Rogers' careful analysis of problems which most often deter mature reading, point to inability to read for a purpose, to paraphrase accurately, to distinguish bias from fact, and to use all that we know in interpreting print (4). The Gallup polls suggest, further, that we are not a nation of eager readers, at least in amount of material and time devoted to the art; yet our literacy rate, in terms of ability to decode, is higher than it has ever been.

One must surely wonder, then, whether the isolation treatment given to decoding can cure the ills that appear in our present practices in reading. After all, early motives are lasting motives. If a child is taught that reading *is* decoding, if his reading materials and instruction specifically exclude any opportunity to search for meaning, then it cannot be surprising to discover that he grows into a Good Boy Reader, his motives fixed upon pleasing his society through the extrinsic act of decoding.

Thus the second question: who can defend, in terms of long-range motivation, the premise that beginning reading instruction should base its system of rewards and satisfactions on decoding, exclusive of comprehension? By what evidence can we infer that the child who reads today for the pleasure of "saying the words right" will become tomorrow's seeker after meaning?

The Child

Yes, they're going to teach my son to read next autumn. To decode, anyway. Well, to match sets of sounds to sets of letters. If he is fortunate, he'll have a teacher who gives him some honest-to-goodness stories, paragraphs, sentences—in other words, some syntax—along with the minimal contrasts provided by the "new" linguistic readers. (These contrasts, by the way, were called word families in the old days.)

If my son is even more fortunate, his teacher will read widely *to* my son and provide equal time for comprehension work, making it clear that this activity, too, is a part of learning to read. Perhaps in this way he can maintain his awareness of what reading *is* and what reading is *for*, despite the influence of the reductionists.

I certainly hope so. He's the only boy I've got. [FEBRUARY 1969]

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JOHN B. CARROLL

Some Neglected Relationships in Reading and Language Learning

The process by which children learn their native language is in many respects a mystery. One major mystery is the fact that through an experience in which the child is presented with a tremendous variety of language utterances, not sequenced, ordered, or "programmed" in any particular way, not even "taught" in the usual sense, the child is nevertheless able somehow to acquire the complex patterns of his language that linguists attempt to describe in terms of the phonology, the syntax, and the semantics of that language. The "average" or "normal" child who is reared in a sufficiently rich linguistic environment has usually mastered all the essential parts of the system by the time he is aged six or seven. The fact that he is able to utter and comprehend thousands of sentences that he has never heard before is evidence of this accomplishment.

That such complex learning occurs with apparent ease tempts us to think that the process of native language learning is in some sense an "ideal" learning process, and that it might be worthy of imitation when we try to arrange the conditions for other kinds of learning. Might it not be possible for a child to learn to read in somewhat the same "natural" way that he learns his native language? Could reading perhaps be "acquired" through conditions and experiences analogous to those by which the child acquires his native language, rather than by the slow, careful teaching processes which we have thought necessary?

Let me hasten to say that I do not intend this as a serious suggestion. I place it before you merely because I think it may be provocative to compare learning to read with natural language learning, in order that we may see what aspects of the latter might be applied in the teaching of reading. As we shall see, I do *not* believe that learning to read can be made to occur in complete imitation of learning the native language.

Comparison of these two forms of learning, however, will force us first to examine the assumption that language learning can be paralleled in other forms of learning, and second, to make detailed comparisons of learning the native language and learning to read.

Consider first the proposition that language learning is a form of learning that cannot be paralleled in other forms of learning. Is language learning a process so unique that it cannot be duplicated?

There is, to be sure, a considerable basis for an affirmative answer to these questions. One argument is that the learning of the native language is an innate capacity of the human species, a capacity, in fact, that manifests itself only during a certain stage in the child's development. In all cultures, normal children learn their native language

John B. Carroll is a senior research psychologist with Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey. This article was presented as a paper at the 1965 NCTE convention in Boston.

at about the same time, and regardless of the inherent difficulty of the language they take about the same time to do it. No such capacity can be postulated in the case of learning to read, for not all children learn to read at the same time, and many children exhibit an extent of difficulty in learning to read that is not paralleled in native language learning. There are other arguments for the uniqueness of native language learning, but I shall not try to consider them here.

Suffice it to say that I am generally *not* persuaded that language learning is a unique form of learning, or that it is a capacity that is exhibited only at a certain stage of life history, like the imprinting of ducks. That is, I do not subscribe to the point of view that language learning represents a unique and possibly inherited capacity of the human species. All that is inherited, in my view, is the enormously complex neural apparatus that makes possible the acquisition of human language only in the human species. Taking for granted this neural apparatus, I assume that the general laws of perception and learning discoverable in both human and animal species will eventually be able to account for the learning of language.

If we grant this, language learning is not a special and unique form of learning that cannot be imitated in other forms of learning. It is perfectly conceivable to me that native language learning could exemplify certain processes of learning that could be imitated in setting up conditions whereby the child can learn to read and write. What we need is more information about what regularities or laws of learning apply in language learning, and how these laws can be applied also in the teaching of reading.

Let us point out comparisons between the two processes. First, notice some striking differences.

(1) As we have already noted, language is learned, but reading is taught. Of course, reading is learned too, but not in the same way. The point is that in the case of language learning, the child experiences a tremendous variety of stimuli; somehow he himself picks out and structures the items and patterns to be learned, one by one. There is rarely any conscious effort on the part of anybody in the child's environment to "teach" him to speak, as one would teach him a foreign language. In fact, in one recent experiment in which an effort was made consciously to apply certain teaching procedures to the learning of language, this teaching actually seemed to *impede* the acquisition of language.

In the case of reading, however, the child is "spoon-fed," as it were. At first, only the simplest materials are presented; more complex materials are saved for later.

(2) A corollary of this point is that in language learning, the child is presented with the full complexity of the language, irregularities and all. In fact, on account of the frequency of irregularities in the language, these tend to be learned right along with the regularities. In some programs of reading instruction that are currently favored, on the other hand, there is a careful avoidance of anything like irregularity until the child has mastered what is considered to be regular.

(3) In language learning, learning to understand speech and learning to speak are parallel and related processes. Even though the child may learn to understand a given speech form before he actually utters it, in general the child works at comprehension and production concurrently. In contrast, in many language arts programs reading and writing are taught quite separately—reading being taught to a certain level of mastery before the start of training in writing.

(4) Here is a most important difference:

in language learning, the code is necessarily functional and meaningful in the life of the child. In fact, it would appear that the child is very unlikely to learn anything that is not meaningful in the sense of having functional relations to his experiences, his desires, and his acts. Learning the language of his environment is vitally necessary to his comfort and satisfaction. For very many children there is no such intimate connection between reading and behavior in general. Reading can be, and often is, learned as merely an ancillary coding skill—as an interesting but not necessarily useful way of representing the sounds of spoken language. Unless measures are taken to preclude this, the child may persist long in the illusion that the printed word has no real function in communication and behavior.

On the other hand there are interesting similarities between language learning and learning to read:

(1) The system of writing has a structure which can be described in a manner somewhat analogous to that of the system of the spoken language. It is, to be sure, not absolutely necessary for the child to learn this structure if all he is ever going to do is to learn to recognize a certain finite vocabulary of words. However, to exploit fully the usefulness of the system the child must learn certain regularities—both regularities inherent in the system, and regularities relating the system to the spoken language. Just as the child learns spoken language in such a way that he can understand and utter sentences he has never heard before, so also he must learn to read written language in such a way that he can recognize words he has never seen before, and for certain purposes *write* words he has never seen before. This kind of learning is what reading authorities refer to when they talk about "word-attack skills."

(2) There can be similar processes of "correction" in the learning of the spoken language and the learning of the written language. Since both of these systems are to some degree irregular, the learner will often make so-called "mistakes" that quite naturally result from "using his head" to analogize or apply previously learned habits to new patterns. The child learning to speak English will try out such verb forms as "taked" and "bringed," and the reading student will try out pronunciations such as /kowm/ for *come* and /sowm/ for *some*. Despite the existence of widespread regularity, every item which is contained within the system must be learned as a distinct item. That is, the learner must acquire a concept of what is likely to be regular and what is likely to be irregular, and within limits he must test the regularity of every item, that is, find out whether it is regular or irregular. This means that in both language learning and in the learning of reading, and particularly spelling, there is a sizable body of items to be learned and verified—items numbered eventually in the tens of thousands.

Every one of these differences and similarities between learning to speak and learning to read is instructive. I am going to deal with one or two of them in detail. First let me merely suggest some of the implications of points that I shall not have time to treat. The fact that in language learning, learning to understand speech and learning to speak are parallel processes argues for parallel teaching of reading and writing. The fact that in language learning the code is vitally functional and meaningful suggests that in teaching reading, ways should be found to elevate reading behavior to a similar status. The similarity between the spoken language and the graphemic code with respect to the "rules" that are inherent in them suggests that more attention should be given to such "ruliness" in the teaching of read-

ing. The similarity, at least in English, of spoken and written codes in respect to their having irregularities suggests that irregularity might be handled in the teaching of reading in ways analogous to the learning of irregularity in the spoken language.

The apparent difference between language learning and the learning of reading that I wish to consider in some detail is the one epitomized by the statement that language is learned, while reading is taught. Put in other words, the difference is that the native language is acquired without there being any careful sequencing of stimulus presentation on the part of the child's parents or peers, whereas it is practically an article of faith among educators that the teaching of reading, like most other subjects, requires a careful, systematic sequencing of the basic elements of reading skill.

At the very least, the comparison calls into question the notion of incremental learning and "small step size" that is so popular today.

To analyze the paradox that seems to be presented here, let us start by observing certain facts that are already fairly well established.

Even though the child seems to be bombarded with speech of considerable variety and complexity, in phonology, syntax, and semantics, there are definite developmental stages through which the child progresses in the complexity of the speech he *produces*. There is a considerable period when the child limits himself to one-word utterances, and even these are spoken initially with reduced phonological distinctions. Next there is a stage in which special kinds of two-word utterances are spoken. So through many other stages. It is as if the child filters out for himself the particular words and grammatical patterns he is able to handle at any given stage; the successive stages can be differentiated in terms of levels of complexity.

The situation is similar to what happens when an adult is made to learn a long list of foreign language vocabulary items by a memory-drum procedure in which each item comes up for a 4-second exposure every so often, time and time again until it is mastered. What happens is this: being confronted with such a variety and profusion of items, the learner seems to pick out just a small number of items on the first or second go-around of the total list. With every repetition, he picks up additional items, although it is an interesting fact that items he does not learn in the first few trials take more and more time to learn as the number of trials increases. But the most interesting finding is that, for example, if a list of 20 items is presented, it takes the learner about the same amount of time to learn the first 4 items he happens to learn as it would take him to learn those 4 items if presented as a separate list. We do not yet know whether there is any gain in efficiency in learning the total list by presenting just a few items at a time; on the answer to this question depends the decision as to whether to "program" the learning task for the learner or to let him program for himself.

All this leads to a consideration of how much we should attempt to "program" the learning of reading. When presented with a rather diverse set of stimuli, it is natural for the learner to pick out those which are easiest for him to learn, and perhaps it is beyond the capability of any programmer to predict exactly what these will be. Even if we tried to program the acquisition of reading competence in some rigid way, there would be enough extraneous influences to modify the impact of such programming. Beginning readers are constantly confronted with printed words on signs, television displays, *etc.*, that will

give them opportunity to develop hypotheses as to the significance of printed symbols. The child who is frequently read to while he follows the line of print with his eyes is in effect being presented with an experience which is not unlike the situation in which he learned his native language. The similarity consists in the fact that the child is constantly and successively being presented with a full variety of language stimuli, spoken utterances and their referents in one case, and printed words and their spoken counterparts in the other. The language learner picks out those spoken language elements that he can handle at any particular stage, and likewise, the beginning reader picks out those printed language stimuli that he can interpret at any given stage.

Thus it seems probable that in reading instruction we can make more use of the practice of filling the child's environment with a full variety of printed stimuli, making sure, however, that they are also interpreted for the child. If we do that, we can expect that many children, at least, will select out what they can learn at any given stage.

Nevertheless, I would be the last to suggest the abandonment of any effort to "program" the task of learning to read. There is a certain efficiency to be gained, and in effect one appeals to the attention of the child on a periodic basis. The proper strategy, from this analysis, is to present a rich diet of reading materials at every stage, but as a parallel tactic also to call the child's attention to particular items or patterns, in a systematic way, so as to facilitate his own developmental progress through spiraling levels of complexity. Such deliberate isolation of patterns for the child to inspect and learn, one by one, is an important element in programming.

There ought to be an explanation for the paradox we have been considering here: that on the one hand the child learns his native language without the stimuli being "programmed" in any way, and that on the other hand, efficient teaching seems to entail at least some such conscious programming on the part of the teacher or material-writer. Let me propose a hypothesis to account for this paradox; I will call it the hypothesis of *contiguous contrast learning*. It attempts to explain how learning of particular items occurs, one by one, in a situation where there are a large number of items presented, whether in a structure or in a more or less random sequence. Essentially, it asserts that *the learning of an item is facilitated by virtue of its contrast with partially similar items that are contiguous in time of presentation.*

In native language learning, such a principle could be constantly at work. The language system being learned is itself a massive set of oppositions or contrasts. For example, plural nouns are contrasted with singular nouns by the presence of a plural morpheme; various tenses of verbs may be distinguished by tense morphemes; *etc.* The child learning the grammar of his language is likely to be presented with many such contrasts and these presentations will frequently be closely contiguous in time. Within the hearing of the child someone says, for example, "Here is a *toy*. Do you have lots of *toys*?" Or, "*Johnny is having his* lunch *now. You will have your* lunch *soon*," unconsciously contrasting nearly every element of these sentences. The child is highly likely to notice these contrasts and to apply them in the future. Even if the language stimuli are not presented in contrasting pairs, a newly presented stimulus can contrast with a language response that has already been learned. A child who has learned to say *toy* will be likely to learn the contrasting plural *toys* when he hears it used in a

situation that itself sharply contrasts with the situation in which he learned *toy*.

It is when we try to apply this principle to the teaching of reading that the idea of sequencing and "programming" becomes meaningful and effective. Sequencing is not merely a matter of presenting items one at a time, but rather of presenting them in such an order that one item will properly contrast with partially similar items. Presenting families of words like *hat, mat, rat, bat* makes use of this principle, for they are partially similar and yet exhibit significant contrasts that have to be learned. There seems to be a particular virtue in presenting such contrasting forms in triplets. Presenting just a pair does not adequately call attention either to the contrast or to the common elements, while presenting four or more instances temporarily overloads the memory. When a triplet like *hat, mat, rat* has been presented and mastered, other examples can be added.

But I am also arguing that in reading instruction, periods of carefully controlled sequences of presentations should be interspersed with periods in which the full richness of natural language text should be presented. I suspect that children can learn significantly from the latter presentations, just as they learn their native language from natural language utterances that are not presented in some order contrived to teach. Not only do such periods add to the interest and variety of the instruction, but they also have a significant function in the learning process, namely, they offer material in which the learner can test and extend the generalizations he has acquired during carefully controlled sequences, and also they provide new stimuli that will afford contrasts with what has already been learned.

In this way, a proper balance between careful sequencing or programming and the provision of rich natural language text presentations can, I believe, produce more rapid progress than the use of either alone. What I have tried to show is that while we must recognize the importance of and accept the responsibility for consciously planning and sequencing the presentations we make in teaching, there are certain features of native language learning that can be built into our procedures. Many teachers do this instinctively, of course; if there are any among them who have been reluctant to follow their instincts, I hope they will no longer be hesitant.

[OCTOBER 1966]

CARL A. LEFEVRE

The Simplistic Standard Word-Perception Theory of Reading*

Which Is the Unit,
the Word or the Sentence?

The simplistic word-perception theory of reading is so widely accepted that it has become a standard; it is a "given" underlying almost all professional work in reading: descriptions of the reading process, research projects, programs and methods of instruction. Buswell makes a typical assertion of the word-perception theory of both language and reading: "*The unit* in reading material is the same as *the unit* in speech, namely *the word* . . ." (emphasis added).[1] In psycholinguistic terms, this proposition is so naive as to be inadmissible today in a professional discussion of language and reading.

A far different theory is closer to reality: A language must be understood in its entirety—including its built-in redundancies—as a system of communication embodying various kinds of units at several structural levels; no language can be understood as a glossary. In primary and basic terms, reading is a language-related process. In seeking meaning, the successful reader does not often read *words as units;* he reads words ordered by the language system into *sentences as units.* His sentence perception is greatly facilitated by his awareness of redundant language signals, of which only a minimum need be sharply perceived for general comprehension of the total meaning-bearing unit. *The sentence is the basic meaning-bearing unit in reading, not the word.* A reading theory that does not reflect this fundamental fact will be skewed out all resemblance to reality; a simplistic theory of language and reading can have destructive consequences in the classroom.

Spache provides perhaps the ultimate statement of the simplistic word-perception theory of reading: ". . . in its simplest form, reading may be considered a series of word perceptions."[2] This basic theory is often enlarged as follows to provide a model or a description of reading as a "unitary" process. (a) Word perception is the basic operation in reading, aided by phonetic and structural word analysis and a vocabulary of sight words. (b) Perception of each word must be accompanied by recognition of its meaning, aided by context clues. (c) Each word-perception-meaning must be held in abeyance while a sequence of word-perception-meanings in a stream of related words and meanings accumulates. (d) Accumulated word-perception-meanings fuse together into

Carl A. Lefevre is a professor of English education at Temple University. The paper was presented originally at a meeting of the College Reading Association.

*And a Psycholinguistic Alternative

[1] Guy T. Buswell, "The Process of Reading," *The Reading Teacher,* 13 (December, 1959) 108-114.

[2] George Spache, *Reading in the Elementary School* (Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc., 1964), p. 12.

comprehension of the total meaning of streams of words, paragraphs, chapters, entire books. Optional embellishments of this stripped model include comprehension and reaction to words and their meanings, assimilation of these meanings into the experience of the reader, criticism and evaluation of material read, and so on. The reading process may be further obscured by declarations in support of the ultimate goals of reading, which are the principal goals of education itself.[3]

What is wrong with this description of the reading process? It has many simplistic faults; it ignores, for example, the trial and error procedure associated with regressive eye sweeps in reading. But most fundamentally, it fails to deal with reading English as a language related process. Its simplistic theory of language is simply false—false above all to the English language. The word is not "the unit" of English speech or print; the English language is not a dictionary, but a communication system for organizing words into sentences, and sentences into larger language constructs in which sentences employ cross-reference signals. This simplistic description omits almost everything we know about the nature and structure of English. It is completely innocent of syntax and the specifics of systematic redundancy; it is devoid of modern information about the sound system of English, structural intonation in particular.

No one tries to teach students to read French, Russian, or Urdu except in relation to the specific nature and structure of the given language. The problem is frankly confronted: How do you read French, or Russian, or Urdu? But not so with reading instruction in English. The fundamental problem— *How do you read English*?—is simply ignored. It is simplistically reduced to "How do you read?" *Period.*

Everyone Has a Theory of Language

Everyone who talks has a theory of language—a grammar—whether he is conscious of it or not; his grammar is a set of internalized rules, attitudes, and beliefs about his language; it has become unconscious and works automatically. If he did not have such a theory, he would not be able to talk. This is true even if he "don't know no grammar." Whether conscious or not, the language theory held by a teacher has a profound and pervasive influence on the children who live with him in his classroom. Every teacher wields a strong influence over the language development of children, not just teachers of reading, English, and the language arts. Our children deserve teachers who have a language theory superior to that of the man in the street.

To the man in the street it is perfectly obvious that English is made up of words. What does a person use when he talks? Words, words, words, of course. Besides, this street theory of language, such as it is, has been shaped by standard school instruction in phonics, spelling, word analysis and perception, and a simplistic so-called

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[3] Following are representative references, listed in chronological order:

Helen M. Robinson, *Why Pupils Fail to Read.* Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1946.

William S. Gray, *The Teaching of Reading and Writing: An International Survey.* Chicago: Scott Foresman and Company, 1956.

Guy T. Buswell, *op. cit.*

William S. Gray, *On Their Own in Reading* (rev. ed.). Chicago: Scott Foresman, and Company, 1960.

———, "The Major Aspects of Reading," in *Sequential Development of Reading Abilities,* compiled and edited by Helen M. Robinson. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1960, pp. 8-24.

George Spache, *op. cit.*

Helen M. Robinson, "The Major Aspects of Reading," *Reading: Seventy-Five Years of Progress, Proceedings of the Annual Conference on Reading.* Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1966, pp. 22-36.

grammar. "Words in print" are always neatly separated by white spaces, and so are letters. Any fool can plainly see that words are made up of letters, and that language is made up of words. Language and print are thus merged in a metaphysical picklement. Unfortunately, this simplistic opinion is not qualitatively different from the word-perception theory of reading.

The way the child is *taught* to perceive printed English will strongly influence the way he *actually perceives* it. If he is taught to sound and perceive single letters, taught to sound and perceive single words, he may do just that and never do anything more. In short, he may become a reading cripple, calling single words or calling groups of words with a sentence intonation on each word or group.

It is a rule of English intonation that a speaker must utter an isolated single word with both the heavy stress and the fade-fall terminal that signal the end of a sentence; (the only exception is using a single word as a question, with a fade-rise voice terminal). Word-calling, or word-group calling, means giving a sentence intonation to each word or group; this practice breaks up and destroys normal English sentence intonation, rhythm most particularly. If a child begins his reading experience by calling words or groups, he is in real danger of internalizing a completely un-English rhythm that will seriously undermine his ability to read silently with sentence sense and comprehension.

Bitter experience has shown that many children do not progress far enough beyond spelling and reading words—beyond sounding them aloud in un-English ways—to read sentences, paragraphs, and longer language constructs with comprehension. Such children do not develop "sentence sense." To do this, they need to be made aware of the nature and structure of sentences to begin with, including sentence intonation. It is not enough to depend on their intuition to make this leap by themselves—nor to depend on the teacher's intuition alone to help them make it.

Well, how can you read a sentence if you can't read a word? That sounds like a sensible question. Let's try to answer it.

Prior Conditions: Reading-Like Experiences

Certain prior conditions must be met. The child must first be ready to read and motivated to find out how it's done. He must know what a book is and what it can do: *he must understand that a book talks.* He should have enjoyed listening to children's poems and stories read aloud for him by an effective oral interpreter. If he has held books in his hands, following the graphic counterparts of sentences with his eyes while hearing their oral sound with his ears—wonderful! Some work with experience charts, using real sentences from his own speech and that of his classmates, is highly recommended; but he should not have suffered the trauma of seeing and hearing his good natural sentences mistranslated into the fractured English of basal readers, whether "linguistic" or not. The child should also be familiar with letters through playing with alphabet blocks and other alphabet games and toys; and familiar with words from watching TV and from "reading" the names of breakfast cereals, detergents, street and traffic signs, billboards, bus and trolley identifications, and the like.

In other words, the beginning reader ought not to be a *tabula rasa;* he should have had a rich variety of reading-like experiences to prepare him for the task of making a book talk to and for him. He should be ready for the concept that words fit together to make sense in sentences, and that a sentence is easily perceived because it begins with a capital letter and usually ends with a period. A remedial

reader at any age or grade level needs this same experiential preparation. If he cannot read sentences aloud, with the sound of good English intonation—rhythm, rate, pitch, and voice terminals—he probably does not have either sentence sense or comprehension. He should be taught to read the patterns and tunes of English sentences from the printed page, a primary and basic requirement of comprehension.

Sentence Order, Word Order, Rhythm

In addition to beginning with a capital letter and ending with a period, a printed sentence uses many other signals to clue the reader in on its meaning. Probably the most important signal is word order, and the order of main sentence parts. Normal English sentence order is subject-predicate, with the words in the following order.

A bird is singing.

But note the structural features of this sentence that will occur over and over again in reading materials:

A _____ is _____-ing.

This sentence begins with the noun marker (determiner or article) *A*; it is crucial in beginning reading not to confuse this structure word with the letter *a* or *A*, and also never to present it alone as a sight word, but always with a noun. The child should be taught to say it quickly, with a light stress, while giving a main stress to the noun that follows it: *ă bírd*. This sentence also uses a very common verb group for present action, the *is* form of *be* marking the present participle of a verb; a formula for this might be *is V-ing*.

The child beginning to read does not need the terminology and apparatus displayed in the foregoing paragraph, at least not at the very first; structural generalizations should be approached inductively, by examples. But attention should be called to the following structural features: the order of *A bird* and *is singing;* the word combinations and stress patterns of *Ă bírd* (above) and of *ĭs sínging,* (where the main stress is on *sing-*, and *is* receives a light stress); and the verb group pattern, *is* _____*-ing*. Attention should also be called to the rhythm of the whole sentence, with two main stresses on *bird* and *sing-*, and two light stresses on *A* and *is*, followed by a falling or dropping of the voice at the period. Usually the light stress on the *-ing* verb inflection will occur naturally, and can be passed by without comment.

Ă bírd ĭs sínging ↘

All this can be done very quickly by the oral example of the teacher, which the children can easily imitate. They can then volunteer other nouns and verbs to fill the same positions as *bird* and *sing-*. Using experience chart methods already familiar to the class, the teacher can write the children's examples on the board.

A boy *is singing.* ↘
A boy *is running.* ↘
A girl *is dancing.* ↘
A man *is talking.* ↘
A teacher *is reading.* ↘

And so on.

By similar steps and methods, other noun markers, such as *the, my, one* may be introduced; the plural verb marker *are;* and then the tense markers *was* and *were,* along with plural noun inflection, *-s*. For example,

Two girls are dancing. ↘
Two _____*-s are* _____*-ing.* ↘

The children can then give their examples of this sentence pattern orally, and the teacher can write them on the board as before.

These extremely simple examples are offered as primary and basic illustrations of the whole range of English structural patterns and elements that might be presented as *one strand* of a multiple-strand reading program. The techniques and methods suggested can be adapted by teachers at any level of primary and elementary reading instruction, and adapted to remedial reading wherever needed.

The Printed English Sentence as a Unitary Meaning-Bearing Pattern

As long ago as 1908, Edmund Huey, approaching reading and language from experimental psychology, developed a fascinating but now long-neglected "unitary" view of reading sentences, and made astute observations about inner speech and intonation in silent reading.[4] Huey's psychological explanation neatly complements my psycholinguistic theory of the printed English sentence as "a unitary meaning-bearing pattern."[5] On the basis of his own research and that of many others, Huey understood very well that reading does not consist of perceptions of sequences of letters nor of series of words. Although he did not have access to modern linguistic descriptions of English, he had excellent intuitions as a native speaker and had studied the work of other psychologists on language; many of his observations on both language and reading were quite penetrating. It is hard to reconcile the excellent quality of much of his work with the apparent fact of its being totally neglected today.

Worlds removed from today's proponents of the simplistic word-perception theory of language and reading, Huey writes: "Language begins with the sentence, and this is the unit of language everywhere."[6] In reviewing eye-fixations and visual perception in reading, he cites research showing that "words of sentences are read at a distance from the fixation point at which letters are no longer recognizable . . . . Even very familiar short sentences were sometimes recognized as wholes under conditions which prevented recognition of their constituent words."[7] Again he notes that "when sentences or phrases were exposed, they were either grasped as wholes or else scarcely any of the words or letters were read."[8] His studies led Huey to conclude that we have a psychological need to "unitize" our impressions "so that we are conscious of them in groups or wholes having a unitary meaning."[9]

Visual experiences with familiar things—houses or printed sentences, for example—accustom us to seeing them as wholes, without analyzing them into their constituent parts or even perceiving all the details. We habitually supply anticipated details to the general shape perceived, or assimilate minimal clues into an apperception of the whole.[10]

This way of perceiving is subject to human error, but in reading, the intent search for meaning causes the alert reader to reread and correct his errors. My theory of reading as a language related process in which the printed sentence is regarded as the basic unitary meaning-bearing pattern is not a simple-minded or commonsense notion; it would be an easy but naive error to confuse my proposals with Farnham's nineteenth-century pamphlet, "The Sentence Method of Teaching Read-

[4]Edmund B. Huey, *The Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading* (New York: Macmillan, 1908, 1916; Cambridge, Mass.: The M.I.T. Press, 1968).

[5]Carl A. Lefevre, *Linguistics and the Teaching of Reading*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1964, pp. xi, xix, xx, and *passim*.

[6]Huey, *op. cit.*, p. 123.

[7]*Ibid.*, pp. 62-63.

[8]*Ibid.*, p. 72.

[9]*Ibid.*, p. 69.

[10]*Ibid.*, chapter 4.

ing" which recommends an experience chart presentation of sentences without structural analysis of any kind.

A Psycholinguistic Alternative

What I am proposing is a psycholinguistic theory that reflects the complex interplay of speech and print, and emphasizes the major but generally unrecognized role of intonation and inner speech in silent reading. This theory holds that large, overriding intonation patterns delineate entire unitary meaning-bearing syntactical patterns in English speech. In efficient silent reading, traces of intonation patterns are picked up swiftly from printed English; these silent traces are what make a passage "sound right" or not "sound right" to a perceptive silent reader.

Within these large patterns—*syntactical and intonational wholes*—the reader is at liberty to pick up all the additional signals he needs in order to get the meaning from the printed page; he is equally at liberty to ignore any redundant signals—grammatical, syntactical, lexical—that he does not need. But whatever his purpose and whatever the quality of the writing, the successful reader deals effectively with the actual language presented to him in print and deals with it in terms of his deepest knowing of his language, the audiolingual trunk rooted in his earliest consciousness.

JOAN C. BARATZ

Linguistic and Cultural Factors in Teaching Reading to Ghetto Children

The low income, urban Negro child is failing in our schools. His inability to read is a major challenge to contemporary educators because of its relationship to the child's self-esteem and his ultimate social effectiveness.

Failure to acquire functionally adequate reading skills not only contributes to alienation from the school as a social institution (and therefore encourages dropping out), but it goes on to insure failure in mainstream job success. There is certainly a relationship between reading success or failure on the one hand, and receptivity to or alienation from the society in which those reading skills are highly valued (Labov and Robins, 1969). It is almost impossible to underestimate the chain of reactions which can be touched off by early and continued educational failure which so many disadvantaged Negro children experience in even the most well-intentioned school systems. Because the educational system has been ineffective in coping with teaching inner city children to read, the system treats the reading failure (in terms of grading, ranking, etc.) as if the failure were due to intellectual deficits of the child rather than to methodological inadequacies in the teaching procedures. Thus the system is unable to teach the child to read but very quickly teaches him to regard himself as intellectually inadequate, and therefore of low self worth and low social value.

Despite the enormous expenditure of energy in remedial reading programs, children in the ghetto are still not learning to read (National Advisory Council on Education of the Disadvantaged, 1966). Although the difficulties of teaching reading to a portion of the population is a unique problem for the United States, the problem itself is not unique. The parallels are quite clear between the difficulty we are experiencing in teaching reading to the disadvantaged Negro child and those of emergent countries which are attempting to make a multi-cultured population literate in a single national tongue.

In his recent report on the Washington, D.C., school system, Passow (1967) indicated that the central question that must be answered is: "What are the educationally relevant differences which the District's pupils bring into the classroom and what kinds of varied educational experiences must be provided by the schools to accommodate these differences?" One major educationally relevant difference for Washington, D.C., as for ghettos across the nation, is that of language. The Negro ghetto child is speaking a significantly different language from that of his middle class teachers. Most of his middle class teachers have wrongly viewed his language as pathological, disordered, "lazy speech." This failure to recognize the interference from the child's different linguistic system,

Joan C. Baratz is codirector of the Education Study Center, Washington, D. C.

and consequent negative teacher attitudes towards the child and his language, leads directly to reading difficulties and subsequent school failure.

The differences between Negro non-standard and standard English have been described in some detail by Stewart (1965, 1967, 1968), Labov (1967), Bailey (1965) and others (Dillard, 1967, Baratz and Povich, 1967). Some of these differences were concerned primarily with distributions and patterning and others focused in greater detail upon syntactic differences between the Negro non-standard system and standard English. It is possible to compile a list of some of the differences between the two systems such as the following:

VARIABLE	STANDARD ENGLISH	NEGRO NON-STANDARD
Linking verb	He *is* going.	He_goin'.
Possessive marker	John*'s* cousin.	John_cousin.
Plural marker	I have five cents.	I got five cent_.
Subject expression	John_lives in New York.	John *he* live in New York.
Verb form	I *drank* the milk.	I *drunk* the milk.
Past marker	Yesterday he walk*ed* home.	Yesterday he walk_home.
Verb agreement	He runs home.	He run_home.
	She *has* a bicycle.	She *have* a bicycle.
Future form	I *will go* home.	I*'ma go* home.
"If" construction	I asked *if he did it.*	I aks *did he do it.*
Negation	I *don't* have *any.*	I *don't* got *none.*
	He *didn't* go.	He *ain't* go.
Indefinite article - - -	I want *an* apple.	I want *a* apple.
Pronoun form	*We* have to do it.	*Us* got to do it.
	His book	*He* book
Preposition	He is over *at* his friend's house.	He over *to* his friend house.
	He teaches *at* Francis Pool.	He teach_Francis Pool.
Be	Statement: He *is here all the time.*	Statement: He *be* here.
Do	Contradiction: No he *isn't.*	Contradiction: No he *don't.*

But what of these differences? All the linguists studying Negro non-standard English agree that these differences are systematized structured rules within the vernacular; they agree that these differences can interfere with the learning of standard English but they do not always agree as to the precise nature of these different rules. This leads to varied disagreements as to why a particular feature exists (i.e. phoneme deletion versus creolization) but it does not dispute the fact that the linguistic feature is present. No one would disagree that standard English has a grammatical structure and uniqueness and many descriptions of that structure have been written. Yet it is probably true that no two linguists would agree in all details on how to write that grammar. This equally explains the current controversy of the linguists as to how one writes the grammar of the vernacular. Controversy as to the exact nature of the vernacular does not negate the fact that the vernacular is there.

This language *difference,* not deficiency, must be considered in the educational process of the Negro ghetto child. In 1953, the UNESCO report regarding the role of language in education stated that: "It is axiomatic that the best medium for teaching a child is his mother tongue. Psychologically, it is the system of meaningful signs that in his mind works automatically for expression and understanding. Socio-

logically, it is a means of identification among the members of the community to which he belongs. Educationally he learns more quickly through it than through an unfamiliar medium."

Since 1953, studies employing the recommendations of the UNESCO report have clearly illustrated the importance of considering the vernacular in teaching reading in the national language (Modiano, 1965). It is clear that structural knowledge of non-standard vernacular and the ways it can interfere with learning to speak and read standard English is indispensable to teaching ghetto Negro children. Goodman (1965) and Bailey along with Stewart have all indicated the existence of interference from the dialect on ability to read. Labov (1967) has also stressed that the "ignorance of standard English rules on the part of the speakers of standard English" and the "ignorance of non-standard English rules on the part of teachers and text writers" may well be the cause for the reading failures that occur in the schools. In addition, Wiener and Cromer (1967) in their article on reading and reading difficulty discussed the need to determine the relationship between language differences and reading problems because a failure to be explicit about the relationship between reading and previously acquired auditory language often leads to ambiguities as to whether a particular difficulty is a reading problem, language problem, or both.

If the disadvantaged Negro child, like the Indian having to learn Spanish in Mexico, or the African having to learn French in Guinea, has to contend with the interference from his vernacular in learning to read, how does his task of learning to read differ from that of the middle class "mainstream American" child? When the middle class child starts the process of learning to read, his is primarily a problem of decoding the graphic representation of a language which he already speaks. The disadvantaged Negro must not only decode the written words, he must also translate them into his own language. This presents an almost insurmountable obstacle, since the words often do not go together in any pattern that is familiar or meaningful to him. He is baffled by this confrontation with (1) a new language with its new syntax, (2) a necessity to learn the meaning of graphic symbols, and, (3) a vague, or not so vague, depending upon the cultural and linguistic sophistication of the teacher, sense that there is something terribly wrong with his language.

Although both the middle class child and the disadvantaged Negro child are first faced with the task of relating their speech to a graphic representation that is arbitrary and without a direct one-to-one correspondence to their speech (i.e., the "silent e" in *love*, the "silent k" in *knife*, the "k" as represented in *cut* and *kite*, and the "s" as represented in *Sue* and *cement*, etc.), the cards are stacked against the inner city Negro child because his particular phoneme patterning is not considered in the curriculum at this early phase so that when he reads *hep* for "help," *men'* for "mend," *boil* for "ball," the teacher presumes that he cannot read the word. *Hep* and *help*, *men* and *mend*, and *boil* and *ball* are homonyms in the inner city child's vernacular. Similarly during the initial stages of learning to read, the disadvantaged child is confused and presumed ignorant and unable to comprehend concepts if when he is taught the rhyming concept in reading he responds that *han'* (hand) rhymes with *man*. When told he is wrong he becomes confused, for he is right: *han'* and *man* do in fact rhyme in his speech. In instructing these children it is necessary for the teacher to separate the concepts to be learned from the details of standard En-

glish. Until we do this, Negro children will continue to be confused and will continue to have great difficulty in learning to read standard English.

Despite the obvious mismatching of the "teachers and text writers" phoneme system and that of the inner city child, the difficulties of the disadvantaged Negro child cannot be simplified solely to the pronunciation and phoneme differences that exist in the two systems. There is an even more serious problem facing the inner city child which concerns his unfamiliarity with the syntax of the classroom tests. Although the middle income child also must read texts that are at times stilted in terms of his own usage, there is no question that the language of the texts is potentially comparable to his system. That is to say, although he does not speak in the style of his reading text, he has the rules within his grammar to account for the occurrence of the textbook sentences. However, the textbook style is more deviant to the ghetto child than it is to his middle class standard speaking agemate because much of the reading text is not a part of his potential syntactic system.

Because of the mismatch between the child's system and that of the standard English textbook, because of the psychological consequences of denying the existence and legitimacy of the child's linguistic system, and because of the success of vernacular teaching around the world, it appears imperative that we teach the inner city Negro child to read using his language as the basis for initial readers. In other words, first teach the child to read, and then teach him to read in standard English. Such a reading program would not only require accurate vernacular texts for the dialect speaker but also necessitate the creation of a series of "transition readers" that would move the child, once he had mastered reading in the vernacular, from vernacular texts to standard English texts. Of course, success of such a reading program would be dependent upon the child's ultimate ability to read standard English.

The advantages of such a program are threefold. First, success in teaching the ghetto child to read. Second, the powerful ego-supports of giving credence to the child's language system and therefore to himself, and giving him the opportunity to experience success in school. And third, with the use of transitional readers, the child has the opportunity of being taught standard English (which cannot occur by "linguistic swamping" since his school mates are all vernacular speakers) so that he can learn where his language system and that of standard English are similar and where they are different. Such an opportunity may well lead to generalized learning and the ability to use standard English more proficiently in other school work.

The continued failure of programs of reading to ghetto children that offer more of the same, i.e. more phonics, more word drills, etc. have indicated the need for a new orientation towards teaching inner city children to read. Any such program must take into account what is unique about the ghetto child that is impairing his ability to learn within the present system. This paper has suggested that one of the essential differences to be dealt with in teaching inner city Negro children is that of language. The overwhelming evidence of the role that language interference can play in reading failure indicates that perhaps one of the most effective ways to deal with the literacy problems of Negro ghetto youth is to teach them using vernacular texts that systematically move from the syntactic structures of the ghetto community to those of the standard English speaking community.

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ROBERT EMANS

History of Phonics

The teachers' room slowly becomes saturated with cigarette smoke. The instant coffee tastes bitter and less enjoyable. Invariably, the topic of conversation turns to reading. Miss Smith, possessing thirty years of teaching experience, expounds her view that the staff has heard before many times! "I can remember when no one dared to teach phonics; now it has come back. It just goes to show that if you teach long enough the old ways return." Miss Young, a student teacher from Nearby College, listens intently hoping to learn from the more experienced teacher. She knows what Miss Smith is saying is true; that phonics, once in disrepute in some education circles, is now considered to be an important aspect of the reading program. However, she also knows that what she sees in Miss Smith's room is different from what she learned about phonic instruction back at Nearby College.

History could help Miss Young in her confusion; it does show that phonics has a way of disappearing and returning to reading programs. However, history also shows that phonic instruction, although included today, is very different from what it used to be in the memory of Miss Smith. Although over-simplified, this historical resumé will show the tendency of reading programs to reject phonics only to return phonics *in some other form* at a later date.

The literature concerning phonics is extensive. Heilman (1961, pp. 213-14) writes "Phonics is the most written-about topic in the area of teaching reading and, possibly, the least understood." Detailed accounts of the literature concerning phonics and related areas are found in a number of references (Cordts, 1965; N. B. Smith, 1965).

Robert Emans is a professor of education at The Ohio State University.

Early Approaches

In the earliest days children probably first learned to read by having someone read to them over and over again until they wished to try to read for themselves. Then the adult told the child the words he could not recognize. Of course, such an approach gave the child no method by which he could figure out words for himself.

The first attempt to teach independence in reading was probably an alphabet-spelling approach which may go back to the time of the Greeks and Romans, or before. The well known *New England Primer* of 1690 in this country used it. In this approach children first were taught the names of the letters of the alphabet. Then, as each new word was presented, they were taught to spell it. Of course, the sounds of the letter names bore little resemblance to the sounds the letter names represented in the word content. Nevertheless, people, especially some advocating computerized instruction, are supporting this century-old approach today.

As far back as 1534, Ickelsamer advocated the teaching of sounds rather than letters. In 1570 John Hart illustrated Ickelsamer's criticism by pointing out that the spelling of *t-h-r* resulted in the child saying

te-ache-er or teacher. The versatile genius Benjamin Franklin revised Ickelsamer's and Hart's concepts in teaching letter sounds and in 1768 published a device for teaching the sounds of the letters of the alphabet in *Scheme for a New Alphabet and Reformed Mode of Spelling*. However, it was not until the time of the American Revolution that a letter-sound approach was put into practice and then not for the reasons previously proposed.

Near the end of the eighteenth century Noah Webster developed a scheme of phonics, not as a means for teaching reading, but to establish a standardized American speech which would reflect the new nation's concern for communication in a democracy. In the preface of the *American Spelling Book* (Webster, 1798, p. 1), popularly known as "The Blue-Back Speller," Webster stated his purpose for his phonic procedures.

> To disfuse a uniformity and purity of language in America—to destroy the provincial prejudices that originate in trifling differences of dialect, and produce reciprocal ridicule—to promote the interest of literature and harmony of the United States—is the most ardent wish of the Author; and it is his highest ambition to deserve the approbation and encouragement of his countrymen.

Thus the original reason for the wide adoption of a phonic method of teaching reading was not to teach reading *per se* but rather to develop a uniform American dialect.

Reaction against Phonics

The predominance of phonic instruction in America went nearly unchallenged for forty years until the 1840's when Americans such as Horace Mann visited the schools in Prussia and Switzerland and liked what they saw. There, through the influence of Pestalozzi, who advocated teaching reading by presenting an object or a picture together with a word, educators began seriously to question the merits of the phonic methods they were using. In 1658 Cemenius had already authored his book, *Orbis Sensualium Pictur* (The World of Sense Objects Pictured), in which he had advocated teaching the meanings of words rather than their sounds. Samuel Worcester, the American author of *Primer of the English Language*, in 1828 reiterated Cemanius' words when he wrote,

> It is not, perhaps, important that a child should know the letters before he begins to read. He may first learn to read words by seeing them, hearing them pronounced, and having their meanings illustrated, and afterwards, he may learn to analyze them or name the letters of which they are composed (N. B. Smith, 1965, p. 86).

A pioneering study by Cattel in 1885 supported the new ideas for teaching whole words. He showed that in a given unit of time only a few unrelated letter sounds could be recognized, but in the same amount of time it was possible to recognize words containing up to four times as many letters. Of this period Smith states, "This was the only period in American history in which the so-called word method was ever advocated by editors and authors as a general method of teaching reading" (Smith, 1963, p. 191).

Reaction against Word Method

The word method was in vogue for approximately forty-five years until about 1890, when phonics was brought back with a renewed emphasis, as it once again was thought to have merit. However, the phonics instruction introduced at this time was very different from the phonic instruction abandoned a half century before. While the earlier phonic method had drilled the

child on sounds of individual letters, the phonic method of this era shifted to an emphasis on groups of letters, often called word families. Reading was again reduced to a number of mechanical drills, each of which focused attention on a unit smaller than a word, such as *ill, am, ick, ate, old, ack*. Children were drilled on more than a hundred phonetic elements before whole words or real sentences were introduced. The context, when introduced, was subservient to the phonic elements, *e.g.*, Kate ate a date.

Reaction against Phonics; Word Method Reintroduced

The extreme emphasis on phonics at the turn of the century brought about, once more, a reaction against phonics during the 1920's. Unfortunately, there was no climate for reform—only expulsion. The new stress on reading silently and the increased volume of scientific research gave impetus to the reaction. As reported by Gray (1941, p. 918), Hamilton and Judd concluded that the general characteristics of a word were the most used clues, but when a word was strange or different, distinction within the word became necessary.

In 1911 in England, Gill (1911-1912) reported a study testing a sentence method against a phonics method for reading speed. He found the sentence method superior. Other studies cast doubt on the value of intensive phonic instruction (Gates, 1927; Sexton, Herron, 1928). Garrison and Heard (1931) found that while instruction in phonics was helpful in the recognition and pronunciation of words, pupils who had not had phonic training were superior in comprehension and in smoothness of reading. Smith summarizes this era when she states, "With the new emphasis on meanings and severe criticism of the method of teaching phonics, the whole area of phonics teaching fell into disrepute. . . . Phonics was practically abandoned throughout the country" (N. B. Smith, 1963, p. 193).

Phonics Reintroduced

Gradually, with dissatisfaction with the word method, more sophisticated research studies, and the advent of new approaches, phonics made a comeback once again in the 1930's. A strict adherence to the word method was found to be unrealistic in that it was found to be difficult to learn all words by sight. Total application of the word method did not diminish the trouble children experienced learning to read. Phonics was re-examined because it was thought that the difficulty children in former years had had in learning to read might not have been the fault of phonics after all (Smith, 1963, p. 193).

A number of studies supported the teaching of phonics. Winch (1925) in England tested the alphabet, the word approach, and two phonic approaches. His conclusions favored phonics. Tiffin and McKinnis (1940) correlated phonic ability with silent reading ability and found a considerable association between the two skills. In a study widely quoted by both opponents and supporters of phonics, Agnew (1939) found that phonics increased independence in word recognition, encouraged correct pronunciation, and improved oral reading, but did not affect comprehension; as a whole the study seemed to favor phonic instruction. On the college level, Rogers (1938) showed that poor phonic ability was associated with inaccurate comprehension and generally with decreased proficiency in reading. Gates and Russell (1938) compared the general reading ability of children given no phonics, moderate phonics, and much phonics. They concluded that moderate amounts of phonics were best. Using somewhat more longitudinal procedures, Sexton and Herron (1923) concluded that phonics instruction

was of very little help during the first part of reading instruction but was of great value in the second grade.

The new procedures of teaching phonics, developed during the late thirties and forties, differed from the procedures used previously; the alphabet spelling method, the teaching of letter sounds, or the teaching of word families. Formerly, drill was given on parts of words before the child encountered them in whole words. This drill on isolated exercises, or a synthetic approach, gave way to a new approach often called the analytic approach. These terms differentiated the approaches—one being the building up of words from their parts, the other the taking apart of a word in order to recognize it.

In the newer approach, the word was observed as a whole, then the parts were seen as components of the whole. This practice supported the previous research by Hamilton and Judd indicating that people tend to recognize the larger visual shapes of a word first and examine the details only when the larger configuration cannot be readily identified (Rogers, 1938). The process started with real words which children already spoke—words which interested them. Words which gave difficulty in daily reading were compared with words children already knew. Most teachers still use this approach, which removed phonics from the criticisms that children memorized phonic elements in exercises isolated from reading itself (Smith, 1963, p. 199). Hildreth (1958, p. 341) summarizes the advantages of the analytical approach:

1. Young children are interested primarily in the meanings words have for them . . .
2. Whole-word sounding encourages children's self-discovery of letter-sound relationships and arouses children's interest in words . . .
3. The analytic method avoids blending problems, the chief stumbling block with other methods . . .
4. The whole-word method provides a maximum amount of practice in "reading through" words, the phonics skill most needed when the pupil deals with new words in context independently.
5. Whole-word sounding contributes directly to learning words so that they become familiar sight words.

A number of studies supported this newer approach. House (1941) conducted a study in the middle grades and concluded that word analysis skills were best learned when the functional use of what was taught could be demonstrated by the instruction itself. Tate, Herber, and Zeman (1940) found that phonics taught in connection with children's needs in attacking words was superior both to isolated phonics and to no phonics. Studies by Gunderson (1939) and Tiffin and McKinnis (1940) came to similar conclusions.

Little interest in phonics and few studies grew out of the 1940's, possibly because the public was concerned with other matters. However, in the 1950's, perhaps partly in consequence of Rudolf Flesch's book, *Why Johnny Can't Read* (1955), people began to think again about the place and objectives of phonics in a total reading program (Russell, 1961, p. 303). A flurry of research studies was reported. Studies by Triggs (1952), Mulder (1955), and Luser (1958) all supported the belief that phonics and phonic instruction are beneficial to the reader. A number of other studies did not produce such definite positive results. At the University of Stockholm, Naeslund (1955) studied eighteen pairs of twins. He found no difference between the methods used with twins of normal and superior intelligence, but concluded that phonics was especially effective for teaching the less-gifted child. Comparing the effects of lessons using visual, phonic, and kinesthetic procedures, Mills (1956) concluded that no one method is best for all. Similarly, Witty

and Sizemore (1955) found that the nature and amount of phonics instruction was still very much in question and that, for most children, the basal reading programs provided adequate instruction in phonics, although some children needed supplementary practice. Durrell, Nicholson, Olson, Ravel, and Linehan (1958) concluded that a lack of knowledge of letter names and sounds produces reading failure. However, Helen M. Robinson (1959) commented that their conclusions could have been distorted by their research methods.

More recently, Porter in 1960 reported that his studies, using a procedure of omitting words in context, showed that children need phonic clues 77 percent of the time in order to get the correct word (Spache, 1963, p. 232). Love (1961) concluded that isolation of phonics with a special workbook and drill produced no greater gains than emphasis on whole words with incidental phonics. Similarly, Ibeling (1961) found adding phonic workbooks to the basal reading programs of grades 2, 4, and 6 did not increase reading vocabulary or comprehension significantly. Sabaroff (1963) concluded that phonics taught systematically may be superior for low achievers, while functional phonics is superior for average and high achievers.

Phonic Instruction Today

What about phonic instruction today? Kolson and Kaluger (1963, p. 10) point out, "Parents find it hard to believe that phonics is being taught because their son or daughter is not subjected to the hiss and grunt of isolated phonic instruction to which the parents were accustomed." Various surveys show that phonics is taught in most schools today. However, Spache (1963, p. 229) notes that only about fifteen percent of the teachers use phonic drill isolated from actual reading. Russell (1961) surveyed 220 teachers in 33 states attending summer school and found that most teachers teach phonics and believe in it but favor its emphasis in second or third grade, not first grade. Austin and Morrison (1963, p. 28) surveyed the opinions of twenty-eight reading authorities who generally agreed that phonics is one of the essential skills that help children identify printed words. They also stated, "Each of the basal reading series currently in use in the schools included in this study introduces phonic elements and teaches certain phonic principles and their application" (1963, p. 30). On the other hand, Harris (1961, p. 325) points out, "None of them (modern phonic programs) relies mainly on phonic sounding and blending, as the older phonic systems did. Instead they attempt to provide comprehensive, varied word attack skills which include attention to meaning, configuration clues, structural analysis, and phonics." Tinker and McCullough (1962, p. 325) concluded, "All contemporary authors who have a background of research as well as a broad experience in the field advise a combined approach for instruction in word recognition." However, there is still much controversy. Austin and Morrison (1963, p. 28) summarize the state of phonics today when they say,

> The question, then, as to the importance of phonics or to its utilization in the classroom cannot be considered controversial. Reading authorities agree on its importance, and school officials attest its universal adoption. Any bona fide controversy must be elsewhere, and in this instance it is to be found in the approaches used to teach phonics and in the program of instruction which accompanies each approach.

The current studies show that teachers are ill prepared to teach phonics. Austin and Morrison (1963, p. 34) note, "Many teachers, whether using a basal reading or a sounding approach, are not well versed

in an understanding of phonic principles themselves. Consequently, instruction may be expected to be inferior." Aaron (1960) sought to determine how much teachers and prospective teachers knew about phonics. He gave a sixty item test to 293 students. Only 2 percent got more than fifty right, and only 27 percent more than forty. Experienced teachers scored better than inexperienced teachers, but surprisingly, lower grade teachers knew no more than upper grade teachers. Aaron concluded that courses in teacher education should give more attention, not only to techniques of teaching phonics, but to the principles underlying phonic generalizations.

Summary

This summary of the literature has shown that historically there has been much controversy centered around the teaching of phonics. As a result there has been a tendency to discard phonics instruction at times, only to reintroduce it again later. However, each time that phonics has been returned to the classroom, it usually has been revised into something quite different from what it was when it was discarded. Although phonic instruction is being given today, it is very different from what it was in the past. [MAY 1968]

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HAROLD B. ALLEN

Ambiguous *Phonetics*

For too many years textbooks and articles, even in *Elementary English*, have cheerfully and misleadingly confounded *phonics* and *phonetics*. Perhaps a chief reason is that the pair exhibits the contrast of formal likeness but semantic unlikeness. Psychologists have discovered that when two lexical forms are similar in sound or appearance but are opposite in meaning, they run a strong chance of producing the result classifiable in what *The New Yorker* calls the department of complete confusion.

An example is the pair, *flout* and *flaunt*, which have provided some historic *faux pas*. One of the more celebrated instances occurred in 1936 when, as a criticism of President Roosevelt, the Republican party national platform was released to the press with this sentence included: "The integrity and authority of the Supreme Court has been flaunted." The next day, after newspaper columnists had had their laugh at G.O.P. expense, the party committee solemnly announced that the sentence should indicate that the President had been "flouting" the court.

Now *flout* and *flaunt* sound very much alike. Further, their meanings are almost the obverse of each other. *Flaunt* means to display with ostentatious enthusiasm; *flout* means to defy openly. One accepts; the other rejects. The human mind finds it very easy to reverse the meanings attached to such a pair. It may be true that not everyone using *flaunt* instead of *flout* actually knows both words, but apparently enough persons who do know both and confuse them have used *flaunt* in this way so that the uninformed innocently adopt this sense.

Much the same situation seems to have developed with respect to *phonics* and *phonetics*. Their similarity in sound and appearance is obvious. Their antithesis in meaning seems to be unconsciously felt by many people who know both terms and either confuse them or use them interchangeably. One goes from sound to symbol; the other from symbol to sound.

In the Middle Ages some grammarians became concerned with the relationship between speech and writing. Involved as they were with writing as the mark of the educated man, they easily assumed that sounds were based upon the written symbols. In medieval grammar we find, then, the notion that a letter has "powers." Each sound that a letter stands for, they said, is a power (Latin *potestas*). This medieval notion survived in the teaching of grammar in England and had an interesting practical application in the first pronouncing dictionaries. As early as 1762 Thomas Sheridan, in publishing his plan for such a dictionary, said that he would represent the powers of a vowel by numerals printed above a letter. Thus $\overset{1}{a}$ might represent /a/, $\overset{2}{a}$ might represent /æ/, $\overset{3}{a}$, /ey/, $\overset{4}{a}$,/ɔ/, and so on. He then followed this scheme in his dictionary in

Harold B. Allen is a professor of English and linguistics at the University of Minnesota.

1780, although the long interval between his announcement and the publication enabled a competitor, William Kenrick, to get the jump on him by using the same device in his own dictionary in 1773. Walker and Webster were other dictionary editors who later drew upon this medieval concept of powers of a letter as the basis for this device for indicating pronunciation.

When, in the nineteenth century, teachers concerned with reading sought an approach in terms of how words were pronounced, it perhaps was not inevitable but certainly natural that they would utilize this fairly common notion of letter powers or values. Whenever you now find a book in which the author discusses the "values" of an alphabetic letter, you know that he has accepted this medieval notion of the priority of the written symbol. Whenever you find someone labeling alphabetic letters as "vowels" or "consonants," this notion is just around the corner; and if the writer tells you that the English vowels are *a, e, i, o,* and *u,* then you are face to face with it.[1]

During the past one hundred years several slightly different such approaches have been developed—all known generally as *phonics.* The term might be defined as any one of various methods of teaching reading by having the child go from the written word to its spoken counterpart, often through a careful "sounding out" of the word letter by letter. Phonics asks the question, "What sounds do these letters represent?"

Phonetics, on the contrary, is not a teaching method of any kind. Phonetics is the scientific study of the sounds made by the human speech organs. This study can be made either with regard to the production of speech sounds (articulatory phonetics), the properties of the resulting sound waves (acoustic phonetics), or their reception by a hearer (auditory phonetics). The phonetician is not at all concerned with writing or printing except insofar as for the sake of communication he finds it useful to have some way to represent visually the sounds he studies. Any system of such visual representation is known as a phonetic alphabet. To the extent that such representation is employed, phonetics begins with the sound and goes to its written equivalent. In a phonetic approach to reading, the question asked is, "What letters represent this sound?"

It might be casually thought that it is immaterial whether one approaches the sound-symbol relationship from one end or the other. That would be a dangerous theory to try out on a mule—or a carving knife. It is likewise dangerous with the teaching of reading. As Professor Chall's significant new book recognizes, beginning reading texts do a better job when they begin with speech, when they are based upon the answer to the question, "What alphabetic letters represent this sound?" and when they then sequence their material accordingly.[2] [MAY 1968]

[1] That many elementary teachers have succumbed to this face-to-face encounter is indicated by certain findings in the 1968 Minnesota dissertation of Mrs. Karen Hess. In surveying the language attitudes and beliefs held by 647 Minnesota elementary school teachers, Mrs. Hess found that three-fourths of them accepted this statement that English has only five vowels and that three-fourths, furthermore, rejected the statement that writing is always incomplete and inconsistent in relation to the spoken language that it symbolizes.

[2] For a fuller exposition of the relationship between phonics and phonetics see Charles C. Fries, *Linguistics and Reading* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1963), chapter 5; Anna D. Cordts, *Phonics for the Teacher* (Holt, 1965) also discusses the relationship (p. 69) but is not always consistent in distinguishing vowels and consonants from the orthographic symbols. Jeanne S. Chall's book is *Learning to Read: The Great Debate* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1967).

Martha L. King and Bernice Ellinger Cullinan

An Annotated Bibliography of Critical Reading Articles

The marked increase in the publication of articles and research reports pertaining to critical reading during the last decade is an indication of the growing interest in and research activity related to this aspect of reading behavior. In the *five*-year period since 1960, the literature on critical reading has multiplied seven-fold over that published during the *decade* of the forties. Analysis of over one hundred articles that were reviewed for the present bibliography revealed that only 10 percent were published during the 1940's, 35 percent appeared during the 1950's, but 55 percent, or more than one-half of all the articles, have been published since 1960. The articles differ widely in purpose, emphasis, and quality; however, most of them can be classified as one of the following types: (a) a theoretical statement, (b) a report of a research study, or (c) a description of teaching methods or materials.

Theoretical Articles

The theoretical articles usually present a rationale for teaching critical reading, which is followed by an exposition on the nature of critical reading and its relationship to one or all of the following: (a) the reading process, (b) critical thinking, or (c) creative behavior. The authors have related critical reading to the total reading process in a variety of ways. For example, most writers view it as a part of the comprehension skills. Smith places critical reading in a hierarchy ranking above literal reading and includes in it literal comprehension and interpretive reading. Russell defines critical reading as a cluster of skills subsumed under creative reading whereas Torrance suggests that critical reading is antithetical to creative reading. The lack of a well constructed theory and agreement on a precise definition of the skills involved in critical reading has been a deterrent to definitive progress. The need for further explication of the skills involved in critical reading persists.

Research Reports

The second major cluster of articles are research reports which can be classified as those (a) identifying appropriate age levels for instruction in critical reading, (b) searching for factors related to critical reading ability, such as the factor of intelligence or the factor of attitude, and (c) measuring the effectiveness of specific methods and materials for teaching critical reading.

The bulk of research in critical reading has been done at high school and college levels, which may reflect the preoccupation of educators with the development of critical reading skills at these upper levels. Glaser's high school study undoubtedly was a basic step in the production of the

Martha L. King is a professor of education at The Ohio State University; Bernice Ellinger Cullinan, an associate professor at New York University. This bibliography was compiled as part of USOE Project No. 2612, "Critical Reading Ability of Elementary School Children," directed by Willavene Wolf, Charlotte Huck, and Martha King. Bernice Cullinan was assistant study director.

widely used *Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal*. Kay, McKillop, and Livingston worked with high school students on selected aspects of critical reading. Hyram attempted to work with seventh graders and a few researchers have worked with intermediate grade students. Gans, Sochor, and Maney's studies illustrate research in which an area within critical reading was isolated and examined with students in the intermediate grades. Although many theoretical articles suggest that primary school children have the ability to do critical thinking, there has been little research to test this assumption.

Methods and Materials for Teaching Critical Reading

The third group of articles reports effective methods and materials for teaching selected critical reading skills. Specific selections were placed in this third category of the bibliography, not because they dealt solely with methods and materials for teaching critical reading, but because they gave more attention to such matters than did the articles classified in the first section. Most of the articles briefly consider the need for teaching critical reading/thinking, define the term, identify specific skills to be developed, and then proceed to describe procedures and materials for developing the abilities mentioned. The emphases in the papers differ; some consider critical reading in relation to specific groups of pupils, *e.g.*, the gifted; others develop the skills within the content of one subject-matter field, *e.g.*, social studies. Several of the selections included are focused on *creative* reading or *critical thinking* rather than critical reading; however, the content of the articles was considered applicable to critical reading.

I. Theoretical Articles

Artley, A. Sterl, "Critical Reading in the Content Areas," *Elementary English*, 37 (1959) 122-130.

Critical reading is the process of judging with severity the ideas expressed by a writer. Factors that predispose a child to read critically in the content areas are intelligence, freedom from biases and prejudices, a background of experience in the area of reading, and a legitimate purpose for engaging in critical reading.

Chase, Francis S., "Demands on the Reader in the Next Decade," *Controversial Issues in Reading and Promising Solutions*. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 91. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1961, pp. 7-18.

Chase says that the demands of citizenship during the next decade will require a high level reading ability. He describes simple illiteracy as not being able to read and a "higher illiteracy" in which the person is able to read but does not relate the content of verbal communication to events which are shaping the future. He suggests that both types of illiteracy may be more dangerous to values of civilization than the atomic bomb and its offspring.

Cleland, Donald L., "Free Communication of Ideas—An Essential to Democracy," *Reading in Relation to Mass Media*, Report of 14th Annual Conference and Course on Reading. Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh, 1958, pp. 15-23.

Cleland defines mass media and presents in historical order four theoretical views regarding mass media communication. He gives illustrations of the power of mass media on human behavior, and proposes a role for teachers in guiding the development of intelligent consumers of mass media in a democratic society.

Dale, Edgar, "The Critical Reader," *The News Letter*, 30 (January, 1965) 1-4.

A description of what critical reading is and what the critical reader does. Dale

recognizes the need for the critical reader to be analytical and judgmental in his determined effort to get at the truth.

Dale, Edgar, "Teaching Critical Thinking," *The News Letter,* 24 (January, 1959) 1-2.

Value placed on thinking is expanded to include the necessary element of critical thinking. The need for teaching children to think critically is stressed and illustrative means are suggested.

DeBoer, John J., "Teaching Critical Reading," *The Elementary English Review,* 23 (October, 1946) 251-254.

DeBoer sets forth a three point definition of critical reading, which proposes an active rather than a passive approach to the printed page, ability to distinguish relevant from irrelevant data, and the existence of skepticism so that the reader will carefully evaluate the reliability of evidence and the soundness of conclusions.

Durrell, Donald D. and J. Richard Chambers, "Research in Thinking Abilities Related to Reading," *The Reading Teacher,* 12 (December, 1958) 89-91.

Studies are cited which show that the ability to think appears to rest upon training rather than upon intelligence. Authors review experts' analyses of thinking and hypothesize that elaborative thinking in reading will be most productive.

Eller, William, "Fundamentals of Critical Reading," *The Reading Teacher's Reader,* Oscar S. Causey, editor. New York: The Ronald Press, 1958, pp. 30-34.

Critical reading, according to Eller, requires a wide background of information, average or better intelligence, appropriate skills for evaluative reading, and personal adjustment which will permit objective consideration.

Ennis, Robert, "A Concept of Critical Thinking," *Harvard Educational Review,* 32 (Winter, 1962) 81-111.

Three dimensions of critical thinking are defined as (1) the logical dimension which includes judging the relationships between statements, (2) the criterial dimension which involves judging the ideas presented, and (3) the pragmatic dimension which includes judging whether the material is good enough for the purpose held.

Gainsburg, J. C., "Critical Reading Is Creative Reading and Needs Creative Teaching," *The Reading Teacher,* 15 (December, 1961) 185-192.

Critical reading is reading with a thoughtful attitude which involves reflecting and interpreting. The author calls it creative reading because the reader is creating more than the author put into the story.

Gans, Roma, "Developing Critical Reading as a Basic Skill," *Reading in Action,* International Reading Association Conference Proceedings, pp. 124-127. New York: Scholastic Magazines, 1957.

The mature critical reader is characterized as one who (1) draws upon his reading and relates it to topics in conversation, to problems, and to studies, (2) is aware of the need to evaluate the sources of material read, (3) assesses the ways in which words influence ideas, (4) selects wisely what he reads, and (5) is willing to take a stand about what he reads.

Guilford, J. P., "Frontiers in Thinking that Teachers Should Know About," *The Reading Teacher,* 13 (February, 1960) 176-182.

A structure of the intellect presented in a three dimensional model suggests many facets of intelligence which have not been measured. Critical thinking can be classified as an evaluative operation.

Harris, A. J., "Three Kinds of Reading," *NEA Journal,* 52 (January, 1963) 42-43.

Critical reading skills operate in *developmental reading, functional reading* and *recreational reading.* Some of the skills are establishing sequence, judging relevancy, and perceiving relationships.

Johnson, Marjorie S., "Readiness for Critical Reading," *Education*, 73 (February, 1953) 391-396.

Reading has four dimensions: perception, understanding, reaction, and integration. There is a developmental sequence which requires preparation for critical reading, which should begin in kindergarten.

Karlin, Robert, "Critical Reading Is Critical Thinking," *Education*, 84 (September, 1963) 8-11.

Critical reading and critical thinking are parts of the same mental operations. Factors involved in critical reading are attitudes, ability, knowledge, feelings, and values.

Maw, Ethel, "Teaching Critical Thinking Through Reading," *Dimensions of Critical Reading*, 11 (1964) 75-87.

Describes lessons used in an experiment in teaching critical thinking. The skills emphasized are selecting relevant facts, judging the reliability of data, making generalizations and inferences, recognizing insufficiency of data, determining cause and effect, and evaluating arguments.

Piekarz, Josephine A. "Attitudes and Critical Reading," *Dimensions of Critical Reading*, 11 (1964) 134-144.

Piekarz' analysis of the crucial relationship between attitudes and ability to read critically. It is possible to perceive printed words accurately and still misunderstand what is read because of the interference of attitudes on the conceptual processes.

Russell, David H., "Higher Mental Processes," *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, C. W. Harris, editor. New York: Macmillan, 1960, pp. 645-661.

Thinking is described as associative, problem-solving, critical, and creative. Critical thinking is a process of evaluation or categorization in terms of some previously accepted standards. It is a logical examination of data which avoids fallacies and judgments on an emotional basis only. Critical thinking involves attitudes plus knowledge of facts and some thinking skills.

Russell, David H., "Personal Values in Reading," *The Reading Teacher*, 15 (December, 1961) 172-178.

Three levels of reading are described: recognizing the word, understanding the literal meaning of the word, and going below the surface to discover new and personal meanings. The deepest level of reading is affected by the reader's personal values.

Russell, David H., "Prerequisite: Knowing How to Read Critically," *Elementary English*, 40 (October, 1963) 579-582.

Stating that critical reading can be thought of best as related to critical thinking, the author continues to define critical thinking and to state reasons why the schools must give top priority to its development beginning in the primary grades.

Smith, Nila B., "What Is Critical Reading?" *Elementary English*, 40 (April, 1963) 409-410.

The umbrella term "comprehension" is divided into three types of reading skills: literal, interpretive, and critical. Critical reading involves both of the preceding skills but requires an evaluation of the quality, the value, the accuracy and truthfulness of what is read.

Sochor, E. Elona, "Critical Reading in the Content Areas," *Reading in Action*, International Reading Association Conference Proceedings. New York: Scholastic Magazines, 1957, pp. 127-128.

Provides illustrations of the application of critical reading skills in all areas of the curriculum at several grade levels. Until critical reading skills can be used with any kind of material that must be read, educators have not finished the job.

Sochor, E. Elona, "The Nature of Critical Reading," *Elementary English*, 31 (January, 1959) 47-58.

Gives an analysis of the dimensions of reading ability that are measured by current tests and a description of the abilities that

make up critical reading. Concisely presents data from nearly one hundred separate pieces of literature related to critical reading.

Sochor, E. Elona, "The Nature of Critical Reading," *Elementary English*, 36 (January, 1959) 47-58.

Defines critical reading in relation to the total reading and thinking processes. Reading is a complex process, of which background experiences and thinking are an essential part. Literal reading involves understanding what is stated, and critical reading includes dealing with the facts in some way.

Stauffer, Russell G., "Language and the Habit of Credulity," *Elementary English*, 42 (April, 1965) 362-369.

Reading can continue the habit of language credulity initiated through spoken language and thus be an obstacle to thinking, or it can be a means for developing clear thinking.

Taba, Hilda, "Problems in Developing Critical Thinking," *Progressive Education*, 28 (November, 1950) 45-48.

Taba holds that a precise definition of critical thinking and identification of a developmental sequence of skills are prerequisite to teaching children to think and read critically.

Taba, Hilda, "The Teaching of Thinking," *Elementary English*, 42 (May, 1965) 534-542.

Reviews some recent studies of cognition concerned with styles of labeling, strategies of concept formation, and the development of thinking.

Thelen, Herbert A., "Reading for Inquiry," *Controversial Issues in Reading and Promising Solutions*, Supplementary Education Monographs, No. 91. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1961, pp. 35-53.

The process of "inquiry" subsumes skills identified as critical reading skills. The reader uses printed material to solve problems and tests what he reads against reality.

Torrance, E. P., "Creativity in the Classroom, Developing Creative Readers," *Instructor*, 74 (February, 1965) 23+.

Describes creative readers as those who anticipate outcomes, use what is read, and transform or rearrange what is read. Critical reading is given a restricting connotation.

Triggs, F. O., "Promoting Growth in Critical Reading," *The Reading Teacher*, 25 (February, 1959) 158-164.

Critical reading requires a contribution by both the author and the reader, and an interplay between the two usually results in a new understanding. Instruction in critical reading can be a part of instruction in all other basic reading skills.

Ziller, Robert C., "The Origins of Critical Thinking," *Dimensions of Critical Reading*. Compiled by Russell G. Stauffer. Newark, Delaware: University of Delaware, 1964, pp. 13-19.

Evaluative abilities are described as judgments of the accuracy, goodness, suitability, or workability of information. Critical thinking is viewed as an integral part of all the thinking processes and is influenced by the social environment, the language, the information accumulation and sources, and the personality and self-concept of the child.

II. Research

Arnold, Dwight, "Testing Ability to Use Data in the 5th and 6th Grades," *Educational Research Bulletin*. Columbus: Ohio State University, 1938, pp. 255-259.

A study in 5th and 6th grade classrooms supported the hypothesis that critical thinking can be taught in the elementary school. Intelligent use of data is defined as the ability to recognize relevance, depend-

ability, bias in source, and adequacy of data.

Balow, I. H., "Reading and Computation Ability as Determinants of Problem-Solving," *Arithmetic Teacher,* 11 (June, 1964) 18-22.

A study of the relationship between reading ability and problem-solving ability as evidenced in the performance of 1400 sixth-grade children on standardized tests of arithmetic and reading. He found that general reading ability did have an effect on problem-solving when intelligence was controlled.

Betts, Emmett A., "Research on Reading as a Thinking Process," *Journal of Educational Research,* 50 (1956) 1-15.

Betts describes the procedures, findings, and implications of the doctoral studies of Sterl A. Artley, Ethel Maney, and Elona Sochor, which deal with critical reading. Author concludes that the studies support the contention that there is a substantial relationship between the abilities to do literal reading and critical reading.

Bloomer, R. H., "Concepts of Meaning and the Reading and Spelling Difficulty of Words," *Journal of Educational Research,* 54 (January, 1961) 178-182.

Bloomer found that knowledge of a number of meanings for a word facilitated ability to spell and read that word. Frequency of occurrence correlated most highly to both spelling and reading difficulty. Concreteness of the word related to reading difficulty, but not to spelling difficulty.

Bloomer, R. H., "Connotative Meaning and the Reading and Spelling Difficulty of Words," *Journal of Educational Research,* 55 (November, 1961) 107-112.

In another study Bloomer found that the learning difficulty of reading and spelling words bore no relation to either the connotative emotional tone or emotional intensity of the word.

Brownell, John Arnold, "The Influence of Training in Reading in the Social Studies on the Ability to Think Critically," *California Journal of Educational Research,* 4 (January, 1953) 28-31.

A study of the effect of an instructional program in two ninth-grade reading classes on the gain scores on the *Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal.* The data provisionally support the hypothesis that a twenty-eight week program designed to improve reading skills in social studies will result in significant total score gains on the critical thinking test. The data do not provide conclusive evidence that the significant gains were caused by the training in reading alone.

Clymer, Theodore, "Implications of Research on Critical Reading and Thinking," *Reading and Thinking.* A Report of the 17th Annual Conference and Course on Reading, Donald Cleland, editor. Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh, 1961, pp. 41-45.

An overview of some of the research studies in critical reading (with special attention to Sochor's review and Thorndike's early study of "Reading as Reasoning") followed by several useful techniques for evaluating critical reading skills.

Crossen, Helen J., "Effects of the Attitudes of the Reader upon Critical Reading Ability," *Journal of Educational Research,* 42 (1948) 289-298.

Crossen's study shows that the attitude which the reader brings to the content of written material affects his comprehension of it. The influence of attitude increases when the reader is asked to make inferences.

Ferrell, Frances H., "An Experiment in the Development of Critical Thinking," *American Teacher,* 30 (January, 1946) 24-25.

The idea that growth in certain components assumed to be inherent in critical thinking can be affected by instruction was tested

in a two year instructional program in a high school history class. No formal evaluation was made, but observed behavior showed increased critical thinking.

Gans, Roma, *A Study of Critical Reading Comprehension in the Intermediate Grades.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940.

A study of the ability of fourth, fifth, and sixth graders to select relevant information for answering questions. Reference reading is a composite of three variables: reading ability, selection-rejection patterns, and a type of delayed recall.

Glaser, Edward M., *An Experiment in the Development of Critical Thinking.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941.

Materials and techniques were developed to activate a spirit of inquiry and to stimulate growth in ability to think critically among twelfth grade students. After ten weeks, the experimental groups made a substantially greater average gain than comparable control groups.

Groff, P. J., "Children's Attitudes Toward Reading and Their Critical Reading Abilities in Four Content-Type Areas," *Journal of Educational Research,* 55 (April, 1962) 313-319.

The study showed a positive relationship between expressed attitudes toward content and scores on a critical reading test when Groff studied 305 fifth- and sixth-grade children.

Harris, Chester W., "Measurement of Comprehension of Literature," *School Review,* 56 (May, 1948) 280-289, and (June, 1948) 332-342.

Pre-college men were subjects of a study to ascertain the "generality" of specific comprehension skills when applied to various forms of literature—drama, prose, poetry.

Hyram, G. M., "Experiment in Developing Critical Thinking in Children," *Journal of Experimental Education,* 26 (December, 1957) 125-132.

A study in which thirty-three matched pairs of seventh-grade children were placed in experimental and control groups. Instruction in the application of basic rules of logic to factual data resulted in a significant increase in reasoning ability for the experimental group.

Kay, Sylvia, "Critical Reading: Its Importance and Development," *The Journal,* 35 (January-December, 1946) 380-385.

Pre-tests and post-tests were used with 385 senior high school students to see how they could (a) form their own conclusion, (b) discern the author's purpose, (c) make comparisons of conflicting or correlating ideas by the same author or different authors, and (d) discover inaccuracies, inconsistencies, and omissions of essential information. Sizeable gains in the first three abilities and a minor increase in the fourth ability were produced after instruction in these areas.

Livingston, Howard, "An Investigation of the Effect of Instruction in General Semantics on Critical Reading Ability," *California Journal of Educational Research,* 16 (March, 1965) 93-96.

A comparison was made of the changes in critical reading ability of secondary school students who received instruction in general semantics with similar students who did not. A pre-test and post-test with the *Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal* showed that the group receiving instruction in semantics changed significantly (increased) in critical reading ability while the change (gain) of the control group was not significant.

Maney, Ethel, "Literal and Critical Reading in Science," *Journal of Experimental Education,* 27 (1958) 57-64.

Tests in general reading achievement, verbal I.Q., and literal and critical reading in science were given to 513 fifth-grade students.

When intelligence was partialled out the correlation between general reading ability and critical reading ability in science was .11.

McCullough, Constance, "Responses of Elementary School Children to Common Types of Reading Comprehension Questions," *Journal of Educational Research*, 51 (September, 1957) 65-70.

An analysis of test results of 258 first-, second-, and fourth-grade children was made to see if testing for different types of comprehension is actually testing different reading abilities. Prediction for all types of comprehension is impossible on the basis of any single score; however, fact-getting ability appears to be a common factor in various types of comprehension.

McKillop, A. S., *The Relationships Between the Reader's Attitude and Certain Types of Reading Response*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952.

Five hundred and twelve students in the eleventh grade were involved in an investigation of the relationship between the reader's verbally expressed attitude and his responses to questions relative to reading material which was in agreement with, or in opposition to, his attitudes. Responses to questions which allowed judgments to be made were more strongly affected by attitudes than responses to purely factual questions.

Nardelli, Robert R., "Some Aspects of Creative Reading," *Journal of Educational Research*, 50 (March, 1957) 495-508.

Five experimental and three control sixth-grade classes were given tests to measure their ability to interpret author's suggestions, to interpret feelings, and to recognize propaganda devices. Special instruction to improve these abilities was given to the experimental group and resulted in a significant mean gain for that group.

Piekarz, Josephine A., "Getting Meaning from Reading," *Elementary School Journal*, 56 (March, 1956), 303-309.

A report of a doctoral study at University of Chicago, in which the case study method was used to compare the reading abilities of one sixth-grade boy and one sixth-grade girl. Subjects were rated equal in intelligence and in general reading competency but varied greatly in their ability to do critical reading.

Robinson, H. Alan, "Reading Skills Employed in Solving Social Studies Problems," *The Reading Teacher*, 18 (January, 1965) 263-269.

Introspective and observational methods were combined to study behavior of fourth graders as they read to solve problems in social studies content. Data regarding number of pupils using specific comprehension skills are given, *e.g.*, 67 percent "did not compare ideas found in various sources."

Shores, J. Harlan, and J. L. Saupe, "Reading for Problem-Solving in Science," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 44 (March, 1953) 149-158.

Fourth, fifth, and sixth graders' reading ability in science materials was tested to discover whether or not there is a general ability to read or if reading ability is made up of a composite of abilities. The results suggested the existence of specific abilities in reading different materials for different purposes.

Sochor, E. Elona, "Literal and Critical Reading in Social Studies," *Journal of Experimental Education*, 27 (1958) 49-56.

Using the same fifth-grade classes as Maney, Sochor developed and used instruments to measure literal and critical reading ability in social studies content. When intelligence was controlled, the correlation between literal and critical reading comprehension was .23. This suggests that literal and critical reading comprehension in social studies appear to be relatively independent abilities.

Thayer, Lee O. and N. H. Pronko, "Factors Affecting Conceptual Perception in Reading," *Journal of General Psychology*, 61 (July, 1959) 51-59.

An investigation of the relationship between the reader's ethical and moral values and his conceptualization of a fictitious character and environment. The 112 college sophomores who were the subjects of the study ascribed characteristics they valued to a fictitious character. Findings indicate that moral and ethical values color the reader's conceptualization and provide a stereotyped sociocultural frame of reference for structuring ambiguous reading situations.

Williams, Gertrude, "Provisions for Critical Reading in Basic Readers," *Elementary English*, 36 (May, 1959) 323-331.

Williams examined ten series of basic readers and found suggestions for teaching thirty-three different critical reading skills. However, only three skills were found in all ten basic readers.

Witt, Mary, "Developing Reading Skills and Critical Thinking," *Social Education*, 25 (May, 1961) 239-242.

Report of a study of ten post-seventh-grade students who were given planned instruction in specific critical reading skills for a six weeks period. Measurable gains were shown on the *Iowa Silent Reading Test* but the author pointed out that objective tests are a poor way to measure the major outcomes of critical thinking.

III. Methods and Materials for Teaching Critical Reading

Barbe, W. B., and T. E. Williams, "Developing Creative Thinking in Gifted Children Through the Reading Program," *The Reading Teacher*, 15 (December, 1961) 198-201.

The distinguishing characteristic of gifted children, according to Barbe and Williams, is their creativity, which should be cultivated through those reading experiences that cause the reader to question, analyze, interpret, and create something unique from the text.

Bland, Phyllis, "Helping Bright Students Who Read Poorly," *The Reading Teacher*, 10 (April, 1956) 209-214.

Describes how bright students are lead to read with greater understanding through instruction in critical reading skills, word meanings, and study skills.

Burrow, Alvina, "Reading, Research, and Reporting in the Social Studies," *Social Studies in the Elementary School*. The Fifty-Sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1957, pp. 187-213.

The importance of recognizing authoritative sources, selecting pertinent data, and identifying discrepancies in research reading for the social studies are discussed.

Carpenter, Helen M., "Study Skills: Learning to Be Truly Critical," *The Instructor*, 74 (February, 1965) 23-24, 138.

Teaching critical evaluation of information and ideas in all forms of communication should be the goal of the elementary school. Both obstacles to the goals and guidelines for reaching them are provided.

Chapman, Carita A., "Methods and Materials for Teaching Critical Reaction to What Is Read in Grades Four Through Six," *Sequential Development of Reading Abilities*, Helen M. Robinson, editor. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1960, pp. 84-87.

This paper considers factors which condition critical reaction and proposes five levels of instruction appropriate for the middle grades.

Charles, C. M., "Teaching about Facts," *The Instructor*, 74 (February, 1965) 48, 54.

Proposes that we change our conception of "fact" and stop confusing "fact" with

unchanging truth. Man's knowledge is changing; children should learn to see "facts" as best *present* knowledge.

Clements, H. M., "Inferences and Reading Instruction," *Claremont Reading Conference Yearbook*, 28 (1964) 144-156.

A clarification of the distinction between factual statements and inferential statements. A list of questions to evaluate statements of fact and statements of inference is suggested. Facts can be seen, felt, observed. Inferences are thoughts, opinions, conjectures.

Criscuolo, Nicholas, "Enriching the Reading Program for Superior Readers," *Elementary School Journal*, 64 (October, 1963) 26-30.

Author suggests that instruction in higher level comprehension skills are necessary for reading programs for superior students.

Dallman, Martha, "Critical Evaluation," *The Grade Teacher*, 75 (September, 1957) 46-47.

Critical evaluation is defined and guidelines for teaching critical evaluation (with specific illustrations) are presented.

Ellsworth, Ruth, "Critical Thinking, Its Encouragement," *National Elementary Principal*, 42 (May, 1963).

The stated requisites for critical thinking and the suggested procedures for teaching children are applicable to critical reading.

Eller, William, "Reading and Semantics," *Exploring the Goals of the College Reading Programs*, Oscar Causey, editor. Fifth Yearbook, Southwest Reading Conference, Fort Worth, Texas: Texas Christian University Press, 1955, pp. 18-22.

Two major semantic problems in reading are presented with suggestions for overcoming them through knowledge of ten propaganda techniques and the reader's understanding of self and his own prejudicial experience.

Figurel, J. Allen, "Evaluating the Ability to Interpret Materials," *Corrective and Remedial Reading*, 16th Conference on Reading. Donald Cleland and Josephine Benson, editors. University of Pittsburgh, 1960, pp. 205-213.

Realistic expectations for pupils' performance depend on teachers' knowing their experiential background; comprehensive evaluation depends upon pupils' opportunity to read widely and to react to reading through numerous media—writing, speaking, drama.

Finch, Hardy R., "How to Teach Students to Read Mass Magazines Critically," *English Journal*, 38 (1949) 388-91.

Finch suggests ways to teach students to read mass magazines critically.

Flamond, Ruth K., "Critical Reading," *New Perspectives in Reading Instruction*, Albert J. Mazurkiewicz, editor. New York: Pitman Publishing Corporation, 1964, pp. 256-261.

Originally presented at the Lehigh University Reading Conference, this paper discusses selected critical reading skills and provides illustration of teaching procedures from the readiness stage through high school.

Hester, K. B., "Creative Reading: A Neglected Area," *Education*, 79 (May, 1959) 537-541.

Creative reading is defined as an interaction between the reader and the author, requiring the ability to read and think critically. Skills that should be taught, reasons for teaching them, and appropriate activities are included.

Hill, J., "Teaching Critical Reading in the Middle Grades," *Elementary English*, 39 (March, 1962) 239-243.

Spache's list of six critical reading skills forms the basis for a description of numerous methods for teaching critical reading. Places emphasis on comparison of sources.

Huck, Charlotte and Bernice Ellinger, "Reading Critically," *The Grade Teacher*, 82 (March, 1965) 101-105.

The authors identify certain critical reading skills and suggest ways that they can be taught in social studies, science, math, and literature.

Huus, Helen, "Reading and Thinking in the Social Studies," *Reading and Thinking*, A Report of the 17th Annual Conference and Course on Reading, Donald Cleland, editor. Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh, 1961, pp. 27-33.

Discusses four basic skills of reading and thinking—understanding vocabulary, understanding the organization, evaluating the material critically, and using the information—and applies them to middle grade social studies content.

Karlin, Robert, "Sequence in Thoughtful and Critical Reaction to What Is Read," *Sequential Development of Reading Abilities*, Helen Robinson, editor. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1960, pp. 74-79.

A hierarchy of critical reading skills appropriate for development at primary, middle grades, and high school levels follows a definition and discussion of need for, problems in teaching, and factors that influence critical reading.

Kermoian, Samuel, "Cactus Pete," *The NEA Journal*, 50 (September, 1961) 29.

Provides a detailed description of first-grade pupils comparing a statement in a book with other sources of information (experience, other books, experts in the field) in order to resolve discrepancies in information about the number of toes their pet turtle had.

Kottmeyer, William, "Classroom Activities in Critical Reading," *School Review*, 1944, pp. 557-564.

Kottmeyer defines critical reading skills and describes three units for teaching skills in upper elementary grades.

Lackey, George H., Jr. and Doris Rollins, "History and Current Events: A Time and Place for Critical Reading," *Journal of Reading*, 8 (May, 1965) 373-377.

A report of the methods, materials, and organization used to teach junior high school students critical reading skills through social studies content.

Langman, Muriel Potter, "Teaching Reading as Thinking," *Education*, 82 (September, 1961) 19-25.

In teaching reading as thinking, special attention should be given to sentence structure, concept formation, evaluation of ideas, and the influence of biases of both author and reader.

Massey, Will J., "Critical Reading in the Content Areas," *Reading as an Intellectual Activity*, International Reading Association Conference Proceedings, New York: Scholastic Magazine, 1963, 104-107.

A definition of critical reading with illustrations of its applicability to literature and social studies is provided.

Mattila, Ruth H., "Accent on Thinking Through Reading at the Intermediate and Upper Grade Levels," *Science Education*, 46 (March, 1962) 174-176.

Ways that critical reading can be taught through the use of current science topics are suggested. Materials are drawn from advertisements, news articles, and television programs.

McCallister, James M., "Methods and Materials for Teaching Creative Reading in Grades Ten Through Fourteen," *Sequential Development of Reading Abilities*, Helen M. Robinson, editor. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1960, pp. 119-123.

Two sets of guiding principles for the selection of method and materials for developing creative readers are stated. Crea-

tive reading requires the reader to abstract meanings, classify and evaluate them, relate them to his own experience, and formulate conclusions or apply the meaning in some way.

McCullough, Constance M., "Conditions Favorable to Comprehension," *Education*, 79 (May, 1959) 533-536.

In a light readable style the author presents four conditions essential to reading for comprehension.

Muessig, R. H., "Can High School Students Read a Newspaper Critically?" *Social Studies*, 56 (January, 1965) 3-5.

Muessig stresses the need for teaching critical reading of newspaper and provides specific helpful teaching techniques and materials.

Petty, Walter, "Critical Reading in the Primary Grades," *Elementary English*, 33 (1956) 298-302.

Reading with comprehension is a thinking process and can be taught in the primary grades through the utilization of problem situations which have meaning for the pupils.

Rapparlie, Evalyn, "Election Year, A Time to Teach Critical Thinking," *The Grade Teacher*, 82 (October, 1964) 100-103, 143.

A report of a one-classroom study of the extent to which middle-primary students are able to apply skills of critical thinking in a unit concerned with the "responsibilities that accompany freedom to choose."

Reinke, Ralph L., "Methods and Materials for Teaching Creative Reading in Grades Four Through Six," *Sequential Development of Reading Abilities*, Helen Robinson, editor. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1960, pp. 12-115.

A presentation of four major behavioral goals of creative reading which the author believes are closely related to thinking. "Creative reading is a process by which a reader brings his appreciative mass, his attitudes, and emotions to the printed page," p. 115.

Robinson, Helen M., editor, "Methods and Materials for Teaching Critical Reaction to What Is Read," *Sequential Development of Reading Abilities*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1960, pp. 80-99.

This chapter contains papers by five authors who consider materials and ways of teaching critical reading in kindergarten through grade twelve, as well as in remedial classes.

Smith, Nila B., "Patterns of Writing in Different Subject Areas," *Journal of Reading*, 8 (October, 1964) 31-37.

This is the first of two articles which report an analysis of special patterns of writing in literature, science, mathematics and social studies materials studied in grades 7 through 12. Part I considers the patterns of writing in literature and mathematics. More efficient and meaningful reading results from understanding the patterns of writing unique to certain areas.

Smith, Nila B., "Patterns of Writing in Different Subject Areas," *Journal of Reading*, 8 (November, 1964) 97-102.

Part II of Smith's article discusses patterns of writing to be found in secondary texts in social studies and science. Among the five patterns identified in social studies are the "cause and effect," "comparison," and "propaganda" patterns.

Smith, Nila B., "Reading in Depth at Middle Grades," *The Instructor*, 74 (March, 1965) 73, 101.

Critical reading is defined as the highest level of comprehension, which includes also literal comprehension and interpretation. Examples of both incidental and planned teaching of critical reading are provided.

Shotka, Josephine, "Creative Reading," *Education*, 82 (September, 1961) 26-28.

Suggested questions and follow-up activities are offered as ways of helping gifted pupils to read creatively.

Stauffer, R. G., "Children Can Read and Think Critically," *Education*, 80 (May, 1960) 522-525.

Children, even at first-grade level, can read and think critically about matters that are within their experience, providing such experience is (1) examined, (2) pertinent facts indexed, (3) relationships noted, and (4) generalizations reached.

Stauffer, Russell G., "Critical Reading at Upper Levels," *The Instructor*, 74 (March, 1965) 74-75, 101.

Critical readers in upper grades must have strength of their convictions and courage to deal with ideas. In the process the reader moves from divergent to convergent thinking as he examines evidence, declares hypotheses, suspends judgments until proof is found, and makes decisions.

Stauffer, Russell G., "Directed Reading–Thinking Plan," *Education*, 79 (May, 1959) 527-532.

Utilizing the work of Thorndike, Dewey, and Russell the author makes a plea for teaching children to read critically through fostering proper attitudes, establishing purpose, learning skills, making inferences, reflecting, and judging.

Stauffer, Russell G., "Productive Reading-Thinking at the First-Grade Level," *The Reading Teacher*, 13 (February, 1960) 183-187.

Author maintains that six year olds can learn the reading-thinking process which he says involves setting purposes, reasoning while reading, and evaluating. A detailed description of how one first-grade teacher guided an "average" first-grade group to read-think through a basal reader story is included.

Stauffer, Russell G., "Reading and the Educated Guess," *Reading and Thinking*, A Report of the 17th Annual Conference and Course on Reading, Donald Cleland, editor. Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh, 1961, pp. 27-33.

The "educated guess," or prediction and conjecture, is presented as a basic critical reading skill. The article is generously illustrated with classroom examples, including a discussion of the role of the teacher and the peer group in the critical reading process.

Tronsberg, Josephine, "Creative Reading at All Grade Levels, *Reading in Relation to Mass Media*, Donald Cleland, editor. Report of 14th Annual Conference and Course on Reading. Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh, 1958, pp. 145-150.

Equates creative reading to critical reading and suggests skills that can be developed at elementary, junior high, high school, and college levels. Author believes the "more complex skills" cannot be developed until high school.